

DOCTORAL THESIS

Accident or Design

To what extent do teachers plan and own their professional learning?

Walsh, Paul David

Award date:
2014

Awarding institution:
University of Roehampton

General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal ?

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

Accident or Design:

To what extent do teachers plan and own their professional learning?

by

P D Walsh BSc, MA

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of EdD

Department of Education

University of Roehampton

and

Kingston University

2014

Abstract

Professional learning, a key aspect of teacher professionalism, receives considerable interest from the academic and policy making communities; however it is an area with limited empirical evidence specifically relating to teachers working in special schools. This research examines the extent to which eight teachers working in two special schools have ownership and are able to plan their professional learning within the context of whole school Continuing Professional Development (CPD) processes and activities. It explores whether transformative models of CPD (Kennedy, 2005) offer teachers more support in making choices about professional learning, examining the issues from the perspective of both the teacher and the school.

A distinction is made between professional learning, professional development and CPD. Professional development and CPD refer to the planning, organisation and delivery of professional development activities within schools. Professional learning is the process whereby teachers move towards a greater level of expertise as an outcome of formal and informal professional development.

An interpretive methodology was used to analyse qualitative data gathered from semi structured interviews and school documentation, to build two case studies. Computer assisted qualitative data analysis software was used within the interpretive approach to analyse the data; the intention was to look for patterns and themes in the case studies in order to examine the planning and ownership of professional learning.

The emerging picture of how effectively teachers were able to plan their learning was a complex one, with teachers expressing variable degrees of ownership and planning. Special school training needs, based on a medical model of identification and intervention, impacted upon the degree to which the teachers interviewed felt that their planning of professional learning was effective. The interpretation of the findings concluded that the effectiveness of the planning of professional learning was curtailed by a lack of personalisation in the organisation of whole school CPD and a lack of coherence between whole school CPD planning and the teachers' professional learning focus. Evidence revealed that institutional development needs and special school improvement issues often took precedence over teachers' professional learning needs.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my school for the support they have provided during my research and writing.

Contents

Chapter sections	Page
Abstract	1
Contents	4
List of tables and diagrams	6
Glossary of terms	7

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 The issue	8
1.2. Research questions	13
1.3. Research approach	16
1.4. Terminology	17
1.5. Context	18
1.6. Study structure	25

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Introduction	26
2.2. Terminology	27
2.3. Professionalism	32
2.4. Professional knowledge	39
2.5. Professional learning	44
2.6. CPD	49
2.7. Chapter summary	59

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1. Introduction	60
3.2. Research design	63
3.2.1. Ontological considerations	64
3.2.2. Epistemological considerations	67
3.2.3. Role of the researcher	68
3.2.4. Research approaches	70
3.3. Methods	76
3.3.1. Selecting the number of case studies	76
3.3.2. Recruiting schools and teachers	77
3.3.3. Use of semi structured interviews	79
3.3.4. Sources of evidence	83
3.3.5. Themes discussed in the semi structured interviews	83
3.3.6. Ethical issues	85
3.3.7. Validity and reliability	90
3.4. Chapter summary	92

Chapter 4: Analysis

4.1. Introduction	94
4.2. Collection, collation and initial analysis of data	95
4.2.1. Initial post interviews analysis	95
4.2.2. Choice of transcription method	96
4.2.3. Other sources of evidence	97
4.3. Process of coding – using Nvivo 9	98

4.4. Organisation of the themes emerging from the data	107
4.5. Chapter summary	109

Chapter 5: Discussion of the Findings

5.1. Introduction	110
5.2. The data and building the of case studies	113
Case Study A: A case study of the ownership and planning of professional learning by a group of teachers working in a special school for pupils with severe autism.	116
Case Study B: A case study of the ownership and planning of professional learning by a group of teachers working in a special school for pupils with moderate learning difficulties	124
5.3. The case studies as an evidence base for the examination of the research questions	131
5.3.1. How do the CPD processes and the provision in the case study schools support the individual professional learning of the teacher?	131
5.3.2. Teachers planning their professional learning	149
5.3.3. Teachers owning their professional learning	158
5.4. Chapter Summary	168

Chapter 6: Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction	170
6.2. Scope and limitations of the methodology	170
6.3. Conclusions and recommendations	174
6.3.1. School CPD and the special school context	174
6.3.2. Transformative professional development	177
6.3.3. Planning	178
6.3.4. Ownership	181
6.4. Recommendations	182
6.5. Future research	184
6.6. Concluding comments	186

Bibliography	188
---------------------	-----

Appendices

Appendix 1: The timetable for different phases of the research project	213
Appendix 2: Models used as discussion points in interview two	214
Appendix 3: Table to illustrate the sources of evidence and data to be accessed through the research process	215
Appendix 4: Lexicon used in a-priori coding	216
Appendix 5: Summary of teachers backgrounds	217
Appendix 6: Tree node structure in August 2011	220
Appendix 7: Sample content form	224

List of tables and diagrams

	Page
Chapter 1	
Diagram 1: Framework of Models of Continuing Professional Development	14
Chapter 3	
Diagram 2: A framework for the research design adapted from Creswell (2009)	62
Diagram 3: Diagram to show structure of case studies	78
Diagram 4: Matrix to map the planning and ownership of professional learning	82
Table 1: Interview themes	84
Table 2: CPD leader interview themes	84
Chapter 4	
Diagram 5: The process of analysis	101
Diagram 6: The organisation of the main themes	108
Chapter 5	
Table 3: Table to show the number of times a model was coded in the interview data	140
Diagram 7: The results of the planning and ownership of professional learning matrix	150
Chapter 6	
Diagram 8: The interface between individual professional learning and whole school CPD	180
Diagram 9: Adapted Framework of CPD models to include Joint Professional Development	183

Glossary of terms

CPD	Continuing Professional Development
DCSF	Department for Children, Schools and Families
DfE	Department for Education
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Schools
EdD	Educational Doctorate
GTCE	General Teaching Council for England
INSET	In Service Training
LA	Local Authority
NCSL	National College of School Leadership
NSDC	National Staff Development Council
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education
SEN	Special Educational Needs
TDA	Training and Development Agency for Schools

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. The issue

One of the key findings of the United States' National Staff Development Council (NSDC) report *Professional Learning in the Learning Professions* (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009) is that professional development should be intensive, on-going and connected to practice. Day and Qing Gu (2010) state that, 'Ideally teachers' professional learning will be self-motivated and self-regulated and involve both intellectual and emotional processes.' (ibid, p.28) In order for teachers to maintain a commitment to learning they need to extend their own learning and the embedding of this expertise takes considerable time. Professional learning also requires planning and organisation in order to ensure it is on-going and cohesive.

Day (1999) provides a comprehensive definition of professional development and learning:

Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school and which contribute through these to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives.

(Day, 1999, p.4)

His definition acknowledges the planned elements of professional development, as well as informal professional learning. It highlights the need for the personal planning of learning to ensure that learning is a systematic process that involves renewal, acquisition, and development of knowledge and skills. Whilst it is not the only definition, other definitions will be discussed in the review of literature in chapter 2, it highlights the importance of planning in the process of professional learning. In order for planning to take place there has to be ownership by the teacher of the process of learning. Both planning and ownership are necessary to ensure effective learning, a point identified by Holton, Knowles and Swanson (1998) in their work on adult learning. They identified the features of adult learning that distinguish it from child learning, emphasising the need for adults to have a sense of self-direction and ownership. Fraser et al. (2007) highlight the motivating effect of interest and ownership linking choice and control with engagement in learning opportunities. Planning is required to facilitate the process of professional learning. Ownership of both the planning and the process of learning is necessary to ensure that professional learning is relevant, i.e. linked to practice, and that there is continuity over time.

The conditions that enable the effective planning of professional learning to take place are complex. Day and Qing Gu (2010) note that the reality is that the conditions in which teachers work do not always promote their learning. Boyle, Boyle and White (2004) underline the weakness in the link between school CPD and teacher professional development and recommended an enquiry into the link between professional development, teacher learning and the resultant changes to teacher practice. Research evidence suggests that there continues to be a weak link between whole school CPD and individual teacher professional development (Ofsted, 2006; Bolam and Weindling,

2006; Kelly, 2006). Opfer and Pedder (2011) characterise a weakness of recent research into teacher professional learning in the following way:

Thus, although there have been significant calls for a more complex conceptualization of teacher professional learning, our analysis of the extant literature suggests that the majority of writings on the topic continue to focus on specific activities, processes, or programs in isolation from the complex teaching and learning environments in which teachers live.

(p.377)

Their argument is that research continues to examine CPD and teachers' professional learning using a 'process – outcome' model rather than examining the complex interplay of issues between the school, the teacher and education policy. The suggestion is that the characterisation of teacher learning as ineffective is because of the approaches used in researching the issues, i.e. a focus on the processes and practices of professional learning rather than their complexity.

The focus of this thesis arose as a result of conversations with a number of teachers working in special schools about their professional development and their learning. One conversation in particular, relating to whether a colleague had a planned approach to her professional learning received a fairly categorical response. She felt that her learning was entirely dependent on what was going on in school at the time. The learning she was able to achieve was dependent on serendipity or happenstance even though she identified some professional development needs as part of her performance management. This answer led directly to the question about the planning and ownership of professional learning, which is an area of investigation where there is limited research evidence. With Opfer and Pedder's concerns about complexity in

mind, this study places the teacher as the central research focus and seeks to establish whether teachers, working in the specific context of special schools feel that they are able to plan and own their professional learning.

The reasons for using special schools as the context of the thesis are twofold. Firstly, as Deputy Headteacher of a special school where one of my responsibilities is CPD leader, I have a professional interest in this. I also support the local authority as an associate education consultant for professional development, developing the county professional learning network. Bassey champions the role of the practitioner researcher in ‘creating education through systematic and critical enquiry’ (Bassey, 1992, p.3). As a practitioner researcher, the opportunity to conduct research into the professional learning of teachers in other special schools provides me with an opportunity to reflect and be reflexive about my own practice as a teacher and a special school leader. My intention was to conduct research about the planning and ownership of professional learning by teachers working in special schools in order to contribute to the development of my practice, for the benefit of my school, colleagues and potentially for the wider profession.

The second reason for using special schools is that it provides an opportunity to contribute to the body of knowledge on professional learning by focusing on an area with limited existing research i.e. teachers working in special schools. Hustler et al. in the DfES report *Teachers’ perceptions of Continuing Professional Development* (2003) had a representative sample of teachers working in special schools. It found that teachers, including special school teachers, wanted professional development that was relevant and included the identification and planning of development needs. However this evidence is now ten years old. The Ofsted report *The Logical Chain* (Ofsted, 2006) includes two special schools in its sample of schools. The *Staff Development Outcomes*

Study (Bubb and Earley and Hempel-Jorgensen, 2008) has only 7 questionnaires from teachers in special schools out of a sample of 466 teachers. The *Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments Report* (OECD, 2009) does not differentiate its sample to specify where schools were special schools and *The State of the Nation Research Project* (Pedder et al., 2010) does not include any special schools in its sample of schools. As well as limited evidence of research relating specifically to special school CPD, the focus of much of the most recent research is on whole school CPD planning rather than individual teacher planning. McCormick (2010) highlights the lack of research about what teachers and school leaders think about CPD and, ‘the need for more research into what is happening in schools with regard to CPD and the views of teachers and school leaders about that activity,’ (p.207).

A large proportion of the research on professional development and learning focuses on the organisation, delivery and impact of professional development at a whole school level with less evidence available about individual teacher organisation of personal professional learning. The intention of this research was to understand the issues that affect the planning and ownership of professional learning from the perspective of the individual teacher within the context of the school, with the schools as the case studies. In doing this I would add to the body of knowledge on the professional learning of teachers, specifically teachers working in special schools, through the publication of findings and through professional opportunities to present the conclusions and recommendations.

1.2. Research questions

In order to examine the issues around the planning and ownership of professional learning four questions have been posed. Set in the context of special schools the research questions are:

1. To what extent do teachers plan their professional learning?
2. Do teachers take ownership of their professional learning?
3. How do the CPD processes and the provision in a school support the individual professional learning of the teacher?
4. Is there any evidence that a transformative focus on CPD provision in a school is more supportive of the professional learning of the individual teacher?

The first question focuses on teachers planning their professional learning. It considers the extent to which teachers plan their learning, the context of the planning and the content of that planning. Do the teachers carry out any planning? Is professional development a result of chance circumstances or is it a more purposeful process? An important part of the background to this question is that since 2006 there have been national guidelines on the annual planning of individual teacher professional learning as a part of performance management (DfES, 2006) within the context of the Teacher Professional Standards (TDA, 2007a).

The second question examines the issue of ownership of professional learning, which is a complex one. Issues of ownership include concepts of self-determination, self-motivation and self-regulation as noted by Day and Qing Gu (2010) earlier in the introduction (2010). The focus in this study is on the extent of ownership, by the individual teacher, of his or her professional learning rather than the common ownership

of learning experiences as part of collaborative professional development. The focus is on ownership because, as was discussed earlier, teachers need ownership of their learning in order for the planned learning to be engaging and motivating (Holton, Knowles and Swanson, 2012).

The third question examines the issues of ownership and planning from the perspective of the school, asking how the two schools in the study support teachers in the process of planning and undertaking professional learning. The focus is primarily on the support by the school for individual professional learning not just provision of CPD activities. Do the schools enable teachers to exercise some degree of planning or ownership of their learning? This question uses the Framework of Models of Continuing Professional Development created by Kennedy (2005) as the main tool for examining the issues. It was used as a tool to aid the interview discussions around whole school CPD and also to support the process of analysis by focusing on the nature and purpose of different types of CPD. There are other CPD models, such as those developed by Guskey (2000) and Harland and Kinder (1997), however they focus on specific elements of CPD such as the evaluation and impact of professional development, and they lack the descriptions of types of professional development needed for this research.

Models of CPD	Purpose of model
1. The training model 2. The award-bearing model 3. The deficit model 4. The cascade model	Transmission
5. The standards-based model 6. The coaching/mentoring model 7. The community of practice model	Transitional
8. The action research model 9. The transformative model	Transformative

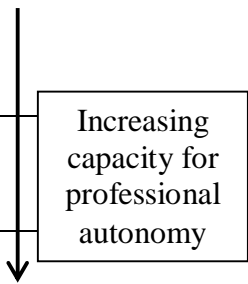


Diagram 1: Framework of Models of Continuing Professional Development

(Kennedy, 2005)

The Framework of Models by Kennedy was developed with the ‘aim of enabling deeper analysis of, and dialogue about, the fundamental issues of the purpose of CPD’ (Kennedy, 2005, p.237). The nine models are arranged hierarchically with the intention that there is an increasing capacity for professional autonomy as the models become more transformative in their approach. Kennedy’s Framework includes a transformative model (model 9), with a focus on, “the combination of practices and conditions that support a transformative agenda.” (ibid, p.246). A potential issue was raised by Kennedy:

In this sense, it could be argued that the transformative model is not a clearly definable model in itself; rather it recognises the range of different conditions required for transformative practice.

(ibid, p.246)

Whilst the transformative model may not be as clearly defined as the other models, its inclusion is important in recognising the conditions that promote teacher autonomy. Kennedy’s Framework supports the research focus on ownership of CPD. The arrangement of the models of CPD, with increasing capacity for teacher autonomy, encourages increasing levels of teacher ownership. The categorisation of the models into transmissive, transitional and transformative models also links to the final question on transformative professional development.

The final question explores whether transformative models of CPD are more supportive of the planning and ownership of professional learning by the teacher than other models. This question is an extension of the third question, seeking to examine whether specifically transformative models of professional development support the planning and ownership of professional learning by creating the opportunities for greater self-

determination of professional learning as emphasised by Mockler in her work on transformative professionalism (2005).

The questions can be broken down into two pairs. The first two questions examine the issue from the perspective of the teacher. Questions three and four examine the issue from the perspective of the school providing professional learning opportunities through CPD and supporting the planning and ownership of teachers' professional development. The issues relating to the research questions are examined in detail in the literature review.

1.3. Research approach

There is limited prior research on professional development in special schools. This study focuses specifically on teachers working in special schools because that is where my professional interest lies. This thesis forms the final part of a professional doctorate. The first part was a two year taught course focusing on teaching and learning, professionalism, and research methods. The thesis is shorter than a thesis for a Ph.D., building on previous modules in the course and is connected to professional practice, which in conjunction with the taught units in the initial phase of the course influenced the selection of a research topic. The taught units on research methodology also had a bearing on the research approach selected. A consideration of the research approach is the need to make the context specific enough so that the research design, data collection and subsequent discussion are manageable, whilst providing a platform for an examination of the issues around the research questions.

The research approach was an interpretive one, analysing qualitative data to develop a reading of the data that provided answers to the research questions in the manner suggested by Schwandt (2005). His belief is that to interpret the social world we have to construct a reading of the meaning social actors attach to their own perceptions. In this thesis the reading was of the meaning teachers attached to their perceptions of professional development and learning.

The qualitative data collection was conducted in two schools which were used to build two case studies. Data were gathered from semi-structured interviews with eight teachers, four in each school, both school CPD Leaders and documentation such as policies and plans. The analysis process used the qualitative computer assisted data analysis software Nvivo 9 (Bazeley, 2007) to code the data from the transcripts and documentation. The software supported the coding of the data and then the analysis of that data in the development of key themes. The themes emerging from the case studies were discussed in the context of the research questions which Stake (2010) suggests ensures continuity through the process of analysis.

1.4. Terminology

There are a wide range of terms in use that relate to professional learning. Bubb and Earley (2009) found that teachers and schools use terms such as: CPD, training, In Service Training (INSET), professional development, staff development and professional learning. The terms have a range of meanings depending on the context in which they are used. In the context of research a range of definitions have been given to the key terms professional development and professional learning, these are addressed

in detail within the literature review. In this study a similar distinction has been made between CPD, professional development and professional learning to that given by Kelly (2006). Professional development and professional learning are characterised not just as variations in terminology but as different concepts. Professional development and CPD refer to the range of development activities teachers participate in, in order to facilitate their learning as well as the planning, organisation and delivery of professional development within schools. Professional learning is the outcome of professional development whereby teachers move towards a greater level of expertise.

1.5. Context

I lead professional development within the special school in which I work and support professional development and learning at a county level. Each context provides a different, but interrelated, perspective on the issue of professional learning and an awareness of the competing priorities of each setting. As a practitioner researcher with a focus on professional development there is also the additional personal context provided by my research interest.

There are three areas that provide the wider context for this thesis. Firstly, there is the literature relating to professional development and learning in education. This is discussed in chapter two. Secondly, there is the context of special education and specifically the context of special schools and the issues that have an impact on the professional development and learning of teachers within special schools. The third area is the context surrounding professional development and learning. The case studies include two teachers with around thirty years of experience whilst the average number

of teaching years of the eight teachers was thirteen. The two longest serving teachers in the sample interviewed began their careers in the late 1980s and early 1990s, so whilst the most recent policy context is particularly relevant, policy over the last 30 years is also relevant because of its impact on the professional development of the two longest serving teachers. For example, the academic content of the National Curriculum (DfEE, 1999) has strongly influenced curriculum planning in special schools since its inception in 1999. This in turn has shaped the CPD focus on the curriculum and its content in special schools.

At this point in time statemented children with a range of Special Educational Needs (SEN) can still be placed in special schools in England. Special schools are schools that cater specifically for children with SEN and usually have a population of students with Statements of Special Educational Needs (DfES, 2001). One of the schools in the study is for students on the autistic spectrum and the other is for students with learning difficulties. Both schools in this study have separate sites from local mainstream schools but provide outreach in the form of training and development to local schools within a specific geographical area and are linked to other special and mainstream schools through a range of different collaborative partnerships.

Vignettes of the two schools involved in the research are presented below with detail about the organisation of whole school professional development.

School A

School A is an all age special school (4 to 19 years) for 120 students with autism. It is a day and residential school. The school works through three departments; primary, secondary and further education. The school has an outreach service that provides training and support on autism to primary and secondary schools in its local area. All the students attending the school have a statement of SEN.

The school INSET training programme and CPD plan is drawn up annually in line with the school development plan. The school provides autism awareness training for all staff which is available throughout the year. It also provides up to date books, journals, research papers, newspapers and topical magazines in the staff work room. Courses

relevant to staff are brought to their attention and staff are encouraged to take up these opportunities. Courses are also identified in Performance Management interviews. Autistic specific courses have a high priority. Cascading of information learnt on courses is encouraged within departments and at staff meetings. Staff evaluate the courses they have completed and the deputy head, as CPD leader, debriefs all staff that attend courses and discusses issues raised at senior team meetings.

School B

School B caters for 165 students from 11 to 18 with moderate learning difficulties in an inner London borough. A significant proportion of the students are identified as having Autistic Spectrum Difficulties, Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder, Behavioural Emotional and Social Difficulties and Speech, Language and Communication Difficulties. There is an autistic resource base within the school for students with learning difficulties who are also on the autistic spectrum. The school hosts an advisory service that provides an outreach service to all primary and secondary schools in the borough for students with communication and interaction difficulties. All the students attending the school have a statement of SEN.

The school improvement plan has a CPD focus. It highlights the aim to offer more peer mentoring, coaching, shadowing, and personal study opportunities to support the professional development of teachers as alternatives to external courses. The CPD planning for each teacher is embedded within the performance management process. Within this process new professional development needs and activities are discussed. Objectives are intended to reflect aspects of the whole School Development Plan and the Continuing Development Plan, and in particular those areas dealing specifically with the curriculum, student progress and student achievement.

Changing priorities in education policy will influence special school professional development as new initiatives are introduced and adopted. This in turn will have an impact on the planning of professional development, as priorities and opportunities for teachers change. The modernization of the workforce agenda, *Raising Standards and Tackling Workload: A National Agreement* (DfES, 2003) led to an increase in the numbers of support staff used in the support of pupils with SEN and as a consequence led to professional development on the use and deployment of other adults in the classroom. *Removing Barriers to Achievement. The Government's Strategy for SEN* (DfES, 2004) promoted professional development on the safeguarding, wellbeing and progress of children. *The National Audit of Support, Services and Provision for Children with Low Incidence Needs* (Grey et al., 2006) and *The Lamb Inquiry: Special Educational Needs and Parental Confidence*, (DCSF, 2009) emphasised the need for

training and development at all levels for staff working in schools for children with SEN, particularly those with less common and more complex needs. The Ofsted report *The Special Educational Needs and Disability Review: A Statement is not Enough* (Ofsted, 2010) includes a summary that links the knowledge and skills required by teachers to provide the best learning.

The best learning occurred in all types of provision when teachers or other lead adults had a thorough and detailed knowledge of the children and young people; a thorough knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning strategies and techniques, as well as the subject or areas of learning being taught; and a sound understanding of child development and how different learning difficulties and disabilities influence this.

(ibid, p.11)

This demonstrates that in effect a wide variety of policy and legislation will have an impact on special education and as a result will directly or indirectly influence the individual and whole school professional development. The national curriculum, the national literacy and numeracy strategies, and assessment and reporting requirements in relation to pupil progress all influence the curriculum, its content and as a result school priorities for CPD. Developments in the understanding of different types of pupil special needs will also influence the professional development choices available to teachers supporting students with SEN. Bolam and Weindling (2006) suggest that professional learning will potentially be different for teachers in different settings, for example teachers working in mainstream schools and teachers working in special schools. The implication for this study with its focus on teachers in special schools is that the planning of professional learning is influenced by the context in which they work.

Edwards and Nicoll (2004), in examining the development and influences on school CPD from external sources such as academic developments and changes to national policy, argued that there was a significant impact of policy on professional development where political rhetoric creates fashions in professional development. This highlights the conflict schools experience in managing national, local and individual priorities in CPD. One of the challenges of the frequent requirement for schools to implement new policies and legislation is the impact on professional development. Time is needed to consolidate and embed professional learning and to create collaborative opportunities before the next policy is introduced (Earley, 2010).

Whilst there is not the scope in this thesis for a detailed critique of inclusion and the continued placement of children with SEN in special schools, it is important to acknowledge that the continued use of special schools is a controversial and complex issue. A critique of the policies impacting on the trend towards greater inclusion of students with SEN in mainstream settings and a critique of the role of special schools can be found in Lloyd (2008). However, professional learning is a key strategy in the development of more inclusive practice (Keay and Lloyd, 2011) and in reducing the gap between inclusive policy and practice. Ofsted in *Inclusive Schooling: Children with Special Educational Needs* (Ofsted, 2004) emphasised the role of special schools in providing training and development in partnership with other schools, the local authority, and with other professionals, such as health professionals, to promote inclusive practice and support for pupils with special educational needs. It also placed an emphasis on special schools being outward looking centres of excellence working with their mainstream partners and other special schools to support the development of inclusion.

Models of disability are another important element of the special school context. They have a significant influence on the culture and ethos of special schools, which in turn has an impact on school policies such as teaching and learning and professional development policies. The two most common models are the medical model and the social model (Adams, Swain & Clark, 2000 and Davis & Watson, 2001). Terzi (2005) summarises the two positions as:

The debate is characterised, on the one hand, by positions that see disability and special needs as caused by individual limitations and deficits, and, on the other, by positions that see disability and special needs as caused by the limitations and deficits of the schooling systems in accommodating the diversity of children.

(p.444)

The medical model is characterised by notions of diagnosis, support and intervention and focuses on the impairment rather than on the individual. In an educational context there is a reliance on specialist input for diagnosis support and training (Llewellyn and Hogan, 2000; Davis and Watson 2001). The social model has become the more accepted model of disability focusing on the way society defines disability. It sees the child as an individual and focuses on the support the school needs to provide to ensure that pupils with SEN can learn. Professional development with content based on a medical rather than a social model of disability would potentially focus on the disability and medical needs of the pupil rather than on teaching and learning. This would have an impact on the professional learning opportunities available to teachers working with pupils with SEN in special schools. The choices teachers working in special schools make about their professional development will also be influenced by the SEN content in initial teacher training courses and in the early stages of their careers. Hobson and Malderez (2005) found that trainee teachers reported that they would have benefited

from better preparation for working with pupils with SEN. The SALT Review (2010) found that there are now no undergraduate courses specialising in SEN and the study by Male and Rayner (2009) found fewer teachers were accessing CPD related to teaching pupils with SEN. A consequence of this is that teachers working in special schools, who have worked in mainstream schools first and then moved into special schools, potentially require additional professional development.

The context of professional development under New Labour, a period from 1997 to 2010, included the introduction of the professional standards for teachers and revised performance management arrangements. The first national CPD strategy was launched in 2001 (DfEE, 2001) with the aim of increasing schools' capacity for CPD. In 2005 the statutory framework for performance management in England was provided by The Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations (2005) and the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA, 2007a) published the new Professional Standards for Teachers in England in 2007. The Professional Standards recommended that performance management should include discussions about a teacher's professional development needs. The professional standards are the backdrop to those discussions. The professional standards also contained specific standards relating to professional development. These changes clearly link CPD to career progression but also put greater responsibility on teachers to manage their professional development and on the school to provide effective CPD. Both of these expectations, on teachers and on schools will influence the planning and ownership of professional learning. In 2009 the TDA, in its national CPD strategy, continued the development of the integration of the professional standards with performance management and professional development. The focus of performance management continues to be the contribution of teachers to whole school improvement and a focus

on improving student performance. This also extends to teachers working in special schools.

At the time of writing a significant impact on school CPD and SEN provision, including that of special schools, will be the education policies of the current coalition government, the structural deficit in public finances and the Government's plans to address the economic deficit. This includes cuts to public services and budgets including education. Whilst this will not be a main focus it will impact on the recommendations about the planning and ownership of professional learning, particularly in terms of the availability of professional development opportunities and the school CPD programme in a time when budgets are under pressure.

1.6. Study structure

This thesis follows the conventional format with chapter 2 covering a review of relevant literature. Chapter 3 presents and critically examines the research design and the specific methods used to conduct the research. Chapter 4 examines the process of analysis that led to the findings and emerging themes. Chapter 5 presents the data as two case studies and is a discussion of the findings in relation to each of the research questions and the final chapter presents and discusses the conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1. Introduction

Considerable time and cost is expended on professional development in schools in England and the evidence summarised by Earley (2010) from the ‘State of the Nation’ research project suggests the provision, coherence and effectiveness of teacher professional development does not paint a positive picture. When this is considered with the evidence that teacher learning can have an influence on pupil outcomes (OECD, 2009; Darling Hammond et al., 2009) and the importance of staff development on positive outcomes for pupils with SEN (Grey et al., 2006, DCSF, 2009), professional learning and development is an area of considerable interest and importance to the teaching, academic and policy making communities.

There is a large body of literature written about professional development and learning. Publications can be found on teacher learning produced by the teacher unions, the Department for Education (DfE) through the national policy documents from the Training and Development Agency (TDA) for Schools and the National College of School Leadership (NCSL). There is also considerable academic literature on the subject. The interest in the professional learning and development of teachers is at a policy, school and individual teacher level. The focus is on all aspects of teacher development from the planning, execution and evaluation of CPD to its impact on students’ progress and on school improvement. With such a large volume of literature to draw on I have focused on the literature directly relevant to the core area of the study, which is the planning and ownership of professional learning by teachers.

The review of literature is divided into five sections. The first section focuses on definitions and terminology related to teacher development and learning and these are discussed in order to provide the background for the following sections. The second section examines the issues of professionalism that relate to the planning and ownership of professional learning. The third and fourth sections discuss the literature relating to professional knowledge and professional learning. The fifth section considers CPD in the context of whole school systems and processes and also discusses models of professional development that have been used to examine the subject. Issues relating generally to special schools are woven throughout each of the sections.

2.2. Terminology

A wide variety of terms are used in reference to teacher learning. The terms used most frequently in England are CPD, professional development, professional learning and training and development. These terms encompass a wide range of activities such as staff training days, teachers participating in courses or training events, longer term professional and academic courses of study or collaborative activities such as peer support. Goodall et al. (2005) highlighted that teachers think of CPD or professional development as the activities and programmes that teachers participate in. Bolam and Weindling (2006) found that teachers think differently about their CPD and their learning. When questioned about their CPD they responded with more traditional views in terms of courses and activities, but when questioned about their learning the teachers responded by relating a broader set of experiences. Bubb and Earley (2009) raise the issue of differing terminology stating that:

Although similar, these terms have slightly different meanings. For instance, the SDO (Staff Development Outcomes Study) research found differences in the language used between groups of staff in some case study schools. Teachers talked of courses, CPD, INSET and professional development, whereas support staff used more specific language, referring to courses, training, and qualifications and, in the context of performance management, reviews or appraisals.

(ibid, p.2)

They highlight the twin problems of both the variety of terms and the difference in meaning attributed to terms that have similar use. Their findings emphasise the importance of considering the use of different terminology during research on professional development and learning.

Evans (2002), summarising the use of terms prior to 2002, found a lack of clarity in the conceptualisation of professional development. Kelly (2006) also reported a lack of clarity in the use of the terms. There is still considerable debate about the use of the terms professional development and professional learning, with contradictions in the use of the terms by teachers and in schools, and differences in the use of terms in academic papers. A good example of this lack of clarity can be found in the recent Schools and Continuing Professional Development State of the Nation study (Pedder et al., 2010) commissioned by the TDA to review the state of CPD in England. It uses both the terms professional development and professional learning. Although the terms do not appear to be used synonymously, there is considerable overlap in their use and no clear definitions at the beginning of the reports. The studies refer to professional learning in the context of practices, goals and perspectives and refer to CPD in the context of

practices, effectiveness, policy, quality and programmes. CPD seems to be used more specifically with reference to the strategic planning and organisation of professional development by schools and the activities that teachers participate in. Professional learning seems to be used in a more personalised context and is about individual teacher learning, but both terms refer to practices in that there are CPD practices and professional learning practices. It is not clear if these practices are the same or different. Bolam and Weindling (2006), in their report on CPD for the General Teaching Council for England, use the terms in the same sentence “A key factor is the strong lead from heads and senior staff in promoting professional learning and CPD opportunities (ibid, p.81)”. Using the terms in the same sentence would suggest that they have different intended meanings rather than just repetition. However that difference is not clear. Another example of the use of the terms can be found in systematic reviews conducted by Cordingley et.al. (2003, 2005) Here the report refers to CPD and to the learning needs of teachers but again it is not clear if the use of the terms professional development needs and learning needs are different.

Bolam and Weindling (2006) suggest that having a focus on professional learning would have implications for new approaches to performance development and that it would help research into CPD if it had a focus on learning. Their suggestion is that having a professional learning focus changes the CPD for schools and for teachers. It creates a clear distinction between CPD and professional learning with professional learning being a mechanism for embedding developmental experiences. The use and meaning assigned to the main terms is important, because continuous use of the terms influences the common understanding, purpose and nature of professional development and learning. For example, if professional development is described as ‘training’ or ‘courses’ the association is potentially with shorter discrete periods of development.

Cole (2004) argues this is development for performance rather than development of performance and the failure to link professional development to practice is the main reason for its ineffectiveness. Cole's view is that professional development for performance provides teachers with the knowledge in order to bring about a change in their practice but it does not facilitate the change in practice itself which is the development of performance.

The challenge is defining a complex concept, such as professional development or professional learning, which encompasses a range of activities, interactions and outcomes in a succinct manner that does not oversimplify the issues. Harris et al. (2006), summarising Day's (1999) comprehensive definition used in the introduction, defines CPD as, "CPD encompasses all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school (p.90)". CPD is used here as a broad term encompassing a wide range of professional development activities taking place in schools, recognising the importance of both planned and informal development activities. In this definition, professional learning i.e. the learning of each individual teacher could be placed within CPD when it is used in its broadest terms. Whilst the definition links professional development with learning, in practice professional development is often associated with the type of activity rather than learning linked to practice.

Cole (2004), Timperley and Alton (2008), and Darling-Hammond (2009) reframe professional development as professional learning, expressly linking learning with outcomes in terms of practice, whilst acknowledging the diverse mechanisms through which learning takes place. Cole (2004) also focuses on planning as an integral part of the process that enables professional learning to improve teaching.

Fullan (2007) also makes the case that the term professional development needs to be reconceptualised with a new focus on the term professional learning. He argues that the term is overused and does not support teachers in the development of increasing levels of professional expertise because the focus does not link development activities with practice in the classroom and learning over the longer term. I would agree with Fullan that learning is a better term. Learning can take place during professional development activities and as a consequence of those activities, but it is not the same as the activities themselves. Learning is different from development or training; learning is dependent on the learners' engagement in and response to the development activity (Holton, Knowles and Swanson, 2012). Kelly (2006) also makes a clear distinction between CPD and professional learning:

I will not use the term teacher development because, in my view, it does not provide for a distinction between teacher knowing and teacher identity.

Throughout I use the term continuing professional development (CPD) to refer to planned opportunities for teacher learning; postgraduate professional development (PPD) to refer to CPD opportunities associated with postgraduate accreditation; and teacher learning to refer to the process by which teachers move towards expertise.

(p.505)

With such a broad range of terms in use in the English education system, this thesis makes the distinction between continuing professional development and professional learning. Following Kelly, professional learning is used to refer to the individual learning of teachers. The term professional development and CPD refers to the range of development activities teachers participate in, in order to facilitate their learning and

the manner in which that professional development is planned and organised within schools. Having discussed the terminology relating to the research question the next section moves on to critically review literature relating to teacher professionalism in order to situate teacher learning within its professional context.

2.3. Professionalism

Downie (1990) evaluates occupations that are considered professions emphasising the nature of a profession rather than the behaviour of a profession, listing five components; knowledge, service, social use, independence and education. Downie's list is similar in many ways to the list provided by Rikowski:

1. Professions provide an important public service
2. They involve a theoretically as well as practically grounded expertise
3. They have a distinct ethical dimension which calls for a code of practice
4. They require organisation and regulation for purposes of recruitment and discipline
5. Professional practitioners require a high degree of personal autonomy – independence of judgement – for effective practice

(From Rikowski, 2006, p.2-3)

Rikowski's final point highlights the characteristic of autonomy as a personal attribute of the individual professional rather than the profession being autonomous as a whole. Autonomy is important if the ownership of professional learning is to be effective in enabling teachers to make personal judgments about the content, methods and timing of their learning (Bolam and Weindling, 2006). This study on professional learning is particularly concerned with individual teachers i.e. teacher's personal professional

knowledge, their learning and the ownership that they exercise in their professional learning. However, Opfer and Pedder (2011a, 2013) argue that teachers' learning cannot be separated from the environment in which it takes place because the teacher and the school have an impact on that learning. In the case of this research the planning and ownership of professional learning is determined by the teacher and the available opportunities in the school. This research is situated in the broader context of teaching as a profession. Evans (2008) emphasises the notion of the individual teacher carrying out his/her professional duties in the context of the collective professional characteristics which she describes as a professional culture. Professional culture at a local level will be the professional culture in the school in which the teacher works. One area to consider is whether there are differences in the professional learning culture of special schools compared to mainstream schools particularly in terms of the influence that different models of disability may have on the focus of professional development.

Rikowski's list reflects a high level of occupational expertise required in order to carry out professional duties with a degree of independence and the ability to employ judgement in the use of knowledge and skills. Taking into account other definitions, such as those by Eraut (1994) and Sachs (2003), three of the consistent traits of teaching as a profession are knowledge, learning, and autonomy. Professionalism refers to the characteristics or frameworks that pertain to a profession. Differing views or modes of professionalism alter how the traits of a profession are characterised, i.e. in the case of this study how professional knowledge and professional learning are characterised by different modes of professionalism. The European Commission report Teachers' Professional Development - Europe in international comparison (2010), which is an additional analysis of teachers' professional development based on the OECD's Teaching and Learning International Survey (2009), highlights that teachers'

perceptions of the culture and systems at work in a school influence teachers' engagement with professional development.

Eraut (1994) suggests that the traditional ideology of professionalism is outmoded, changing and increasingly used as a term to define a much wider range of occupations including public service occupations such as education, nursing and social work. The adoption of the term professional to include more occupations challenges the accepted definitions of professionalism (Goodson and Hargreaves, 1996). Laursen (1996) describes professionalism as, 'An on-going struggle without any single path that can guarantee recognition as professionals. Many groups strive for recognition as professionals, strong forces oppose them and the struggles are open ended' (p.51).

Evans (2008) describes professionalism in terms of demanded, prescribed and *enacted* professionalism. The concept of *enacted* professionalism is useful because it specifically focuses on the professionalism visible in teacher practice rather than the demanded or prescribed forces outside of the teaching profession. The weakness of *enacted* professionalism is that it only describes what already exists; it does not develop theoretical conceptions of professionalism that contribute to the debates. Like Laursen, Evans emphasises the influence of the different forces on professionalism such as the external forces of government in demanded professionalism or the agency of teachers in *enacted* professionalism with its focus on the visible professionalism. Teaching is still considered to be a graduate profession which as Hargreaves (2000) describes has passed through a number of stages of professionalism. A recent illustration of the open-endedness of Laursen's notion of professionalism would be the impact of the rapid increase in the numbers of support staff such as cover supervisors and Higher Level Teaching Assistants carrying out teaching duties in schools. This change has blurred

the boundaries around who is qualified to teach, a role previously reserved for qualified graduate teachers. The increase in numbers of support staff has influenced the terms used in reference to professional development (Bubb and Earley, 2009) and challenged how professional learning and professional knowledge is characterised in terms of professionalism.

Downie's (1990) perspective is that professionals perform a unique and socially useful function and this is what distinguishes them from occupations in business and commerce. He also notes that the range of occupations described as professional is changing as new fields of knowledge develop, creating new possibilities for public service. Whilst this is a useful means of identifying what distinguishes professional from semi-professional occupational roles there is always going to be a debate around the characteristics and the boundaries that delineate a term used to denote a particular status or level of remuneration by those who wish to retain their status and those that would aspire to being classified as a professional. Gerwitz (2009) describes professionalism as a term pointing in different directions thus illustrating the complexities of the issues. She separates it into two directions, one direction is the term profession – as an occupational category, and the second is in the direction of professional virtues or characteristics. Gerwitz argues that it is important to keep both concepts in play simultaneously in order to understand teacher professionalism. Whilst I am not ignoring the notion and debate around teaching as a profession, my main focus will be to accept this premise and concentrate on the effects of differing views of professionalism on teacher professional learning.

Sachs (2003) also acknowledges the difficulties in defining the term professionalism, seeing it as an evolving term. Kennedy (2007) suggests that literature examining

professionalism from a sociological perspective is being superseded by developing concepts of professionalism that support particular political agendas. She differs from Eraut (1994) in describing professionalism as a concept rather than an ideology with ideologies underpinning those concepts. For example 'New professionalism' is a term used to describe an ideological reframing of the concept of professionalism particularly linked to the New Labour standards agenda (Keay & Lloyd, 2011). Evans (2008) emphasises the relevance of the debate around professionalism to professional development, arguing that 'New Professionalisms' can be associated with changes in power and autonomy and as a direct or indirect consequence have an impact on professional development. Patrick, Forde and McPhee (2003) question the influence of New Professionalism in creating a competency based ideology in professional learning through, for example, the accountability of performance management and professional standards. Pedder and Opfer (2010) actually found little progress has been made in the 'promotion of the New Professionalism in schools through developing closer alignment between Professional Standards, Performance Management and CPD' (p. 436). The view of 'New Professionalism' is part of the modernisation agenda of the last decade, an example of demanded professionalism as described by Evans (2002).

A specific example of the influence of these direct or indirect consequences can be found in the introduction of the new professional standards and the performance management regulations in 2007. Prior to 2007 references to the planning of professional learning or development referred to the planning during professional development rather than the planning of professional development (Hustler et al., 2003). After planning was included as a part of the performance management process, reference to planning for professional development began to appear in research

literature such as the *State of the Nation* review (Pedder et al., 2010) and reports on professional development by Ofsted (2010).

Responses to the demanded professionalism of the state are calls such as that by Sachs (2003) for a re-professionalisation of teachers. She proposes a more transformative, democratic professionalism with professional learning as one of the central activities. She recasts teachers as continuous learners who see learning throughout their careers as a core activity that transforms their identity and their relationships with other professionals and with students. This activist position with its focus on transformative professionalism implies that teachers have been passive learners and need to become active participants in their learning. Mockler (2005) emphasises the importance of school cultures where there is active trust of teachers by senior staff and where risk taking promotes transformative professionalism, which is a challenge for schools in a political climate of accountability and scrutiny.

Kennedy (2007) draws on terms used in contemporary literature on professionalism, particularly work by Sachs, to separate definitions of 'New Professionalism' into two groups; managerial professionalism and democratic professionalism. Kennedy compares the differences between the two concepts of professionalism as, "The managerial perspective values effectiveness, efficiency and compliance with policy, where the democratic perspective holds dear such values as social justice, fairness and equality." She also notes that democratic professionalism has a "strong focus on collaboration." (2007, p.101).

The picture of professionalism in relation to CPD suggests that teachers feel that it focuses more on national and school issues rather than their own development needs

(Bolam and Weindling, 2006). However focusing on the needs of students, improving practice and moving towards greater expertise are legitimate goals for professional learning. One argument is that teachers have not been able to exercise their own professional autonomy and judgment because of the plethora of national policy initiatives and central control of CPD (Pedder et al., 2010). Whitty (2006) supports Sachs commenting that:

Her (*Sachs*) activist professional works collectively towards strategic ends, operates on the basis of developing networks and alliances between bureaucracies, unions, professional associations and community organisations. These alliances are not static, but form and are reformed around different issues and concerns. Activist professionals take responsibility for their own on-going professional learning, and work within multiple communities of practice.

(Whitty, 2006, p.14)

He takes a more positive position on the political influence on teacher professionalism, particularly in the context of the increase of other professionals and para-professional involvement in the work of schools, supporting Sachs' notion of democratic professionalism. The picture is of teachers as professionals engaging in continuous learning throughout their careers, increasing their knowledge and expertise with varying degrees of autonomy and accountability depending on the political and cultural influences of the time (Pollard, 2010).

Managerial professionalism and democratic professionalism are contrasting concepts of professionalism that have different impacts on the planning and ownership of professional learning. Whilst not eliminating ownership and planning of professional learning by teachers; managerial professionalism, with its focus on school

improvement, performativity, accountability and control will restrict the freedom and independence with which teachers can plan their learning. Democratic professionalism with its focus on the collaborative and transformative participation in education processes will enable teachers to be active participants in their professional learning journeys.

In the next section I will examine literature around professional knowledge in more detail. I will also focus on perceptions of professional knowledge in relation to the planning and ownership of professional knowledge because they influence both the content of professional development and the models of CPD used to support professional development.

2.4. Professional knowledge

Downie's (1990) and Rikowski's (2006) definitions of a profession both include professional knowledge as one of the characteristics. Day's (1999) definition of professional development links professional development with professional knowledge stating that the purpose of professional development is, "by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives." (ibid, p.4). Day's definition includes knowledge, skills and knowledge of self and others (emotional intelligence) as three knowledge types. A consideration of types of professional knowledge is important because teachers' professional knowledge will influence the choices they make about professional learning.

Hegarty (2000) summarises different approaches to categorising teacher knowledge, tacit and explicit knowledge, knowledge of the learner and knowledge of self (Elliott et al., 2011). Turner-Bissett (1999) lists eleven categories of professional knowledge which encompass subject knowledge, teaching knowledge, the knowledge of learners and knowledge of self. Her model offers a much broader view of the professional knowledge of teachers which would seem to support the notion that teachers as a profession have a unique composite knowledge in a way that simpler models of subject and process knowledge do not offer. Models of professional knowledge such as those proposed by Goodson and Hargreaves (1996) and Sachs (2003), like Schön, also treat knowledge more dynamically and openly. Matheson (2006) recognises both expert and craft knowledge in the forms of professional and tacit knowledge and acknowledges the importance of knowledge being shared and shaped by the attitudes and beliefs of the group maintained by the process of continuous professional development.

These definitions demonstrate that the difficulty with a simple focus on subject and pedagogical knowledge is that, like many other definitions or categorisations of knowledge and types of knowledge used by writers in the past, it is too narrow (Goodson and Hargreaves, 1996). They often refer to subject and process knowledge but leave out personal knowledge such as self-awareness, and the cultural and emotional impact of knowledge. Eraut (1994) notes this, stating: “Many areas of professional knowledge have not been codified: and it is increasingly recognised that experts often cannot explain the nature of their own expertise” (p.101).

The notion of developing a broader conception of knowledge is not a new suggestion; over a hundred years ago Dewey wrote about the knowledge gained as a result of

reflection (Dewey, 1910). He wrote at a time where professional knowledge was influenced by the rational scientific movements that favoured logical and scientific forms of knowledge rather than the practical, emotional and cultural forms of knowledge (Laursen, 1996).

Eraut (1994) characterises professional knowledge by initially separating knowledge into propositional knowledge, the knowledge that underpins and supports professional action such as curriculum knowledge and pedagogical knowledge and the more difficult to define knowledge of everyday practice. The latter is what is characterised as the craft or art of teaching (Peter, 1967; Pollard 2010), the everyday intuitive practice built up through experience, or as Hegerty (2000) describes it, tacit knowledge.

Schön's work supports the developing understanding of pedagogical knowledge. Schön (1983) proposed an epistemology of practice that was more than technicist learning and practice of subject and pedagogical knowledge to one that included the skills and knowledge necessary to be able to reflect on practice whilst the events were taking place in order to improve and adapt existing practice. It was an epistemology that proposed a body of professional knowledge that was flexible and open to change. Significantly he referred to the demystification of professional expertise. His suggestion was that professional knowledge may stop being the guarded hegemony of those in possession of knowledge but become open to scrutiny and collaboration.

Eraut's (1994) criticism of Schön is that the examples used to illustrate reflection in action and reflection on action are somewhat confused, however he says that what Schön's work illustrates best is the metacognition at work in the processes of knowledge development. I think that this criticism does not lessen the significance of

Schön's work on reflective practice but illustrates the dynamic processes of professional knowledge development. The development of professional knowledge by a teacher requires the teacher to be an active participant in that process not just a recipient in order to make the knowledge relevant (Bauman, 2002). The acquisition of new knowledge is a reflective process where the new knowledge is assimilated with existing knowledge and experience. Its relevance is that the process of reflection is a key part of knowledge acquisition, reflection on and during learning, or metacognition as Eraut described. It is an on-going process that requires planning and organisation as part of a teacher's professional learning.

The technological changes in society have resulted in ubiquitous access to information through the internet. The open access to information means that professions can no longer claim to be guardians of a particular knowledge set with restricted access to those entering the profession. Professional knowledge, particularly expertise and in this thesis expertise in the area of SEN, has moved from closed to open access, professionals from guardians to co-owners and co-creators of knowledge (Young & Beck, 2005; Bottery, 2006). The professional knowledge of teachers is open to scrutiny and teachers have had to adapt to teaching in this new knowledge environment (Hargreaves, 2003).

The responses of democratic and managerial professionalism to the changing needs in professional knowledge are potentially different. Managerial professionalism would seek to address the gaps in skills and knowledge with structured and measurable approaches to development. Democratic professionalism which supports collaborative approaches to knowledge development, where professionals are not necessarily the guardians of knowledge but can be seen as the co-constructors of knowledge is potentially a more dynamic response to the changing professional knowledge (Whitty,

2006). An example of this would be the creation of new professional knowledge by teachers working in special schools with a wide variety of other professionals and para professionals such as occupational therapists, educational psychologists and teaching assistants. The focus is on working together, broadening and developing knowledge of how best to teach a group of children with special educational needs and disabilities, drawing on both explicit knowledge of SEN and tacit knowledge of the students and what works best in the classroom. The challenges for the teachers are that they are often not only planning to meet the learning needs of the pupils but also their own professional learning and they could additionally be planning how to meet the learning needs of colleagues working with them. The school also has to manage the diverse learning needs of a more varied staffing structure which is a challenge when there are large differences in the levels of knowledge amongst a staff group.

An example of a contemporary view of knowledge that illustrates the link in the development of pedagogical knowledge to professional learning can be found in the recent Teaching and Learning Research Programme (Pollard, 2010) publication on pedagogy. It expands the simplistic definitions of pedagogy to include reflective practice, which would implicitly include a degree of self-knowledge. The definition states:

Pedagogy' is the practice of teaching, framed and informed by a shared and structured body of knowledge. This knowledge comprises experience, evidence, understanding moral purpose and shared transparent values. It is by virtue of progressively acquiring such knowledge and mastering the expertise – through initial training, continuing development, reflection, classroom inquiry and regulated practice.

(Pollard, 2010, p.5)

Whilst the definition provides a useful link between professional knowledge and the processes of professional learning; what it does not articulate is bodies of knowledge specific to particular contexts such as the knowledge which underpins the practice in a special school. Structured bodies of knowledge can be contested, and influence the culture and focus of teaching and learning in a school. For example, in the introduction two different models of special education (Davis, 2000), the medical and social models, were described as part of the special school context. The model that dominates in a segregated special school will influence both the existing and the developing body of knowledge and the content of professional development.

2.5. Professional Learning

McCormick, in his literature review for the '*State of the Nation Research Project*' (2010), highlighted poor conceptualisations of teacher learning. The issue has been highlighted earlier but it recurs in this section because it is specifically about learning rather than policy or processes in CPD. There is not the scope in this literature review to explore learning theory; the focus instead is on the issues around teacher professional learning. The first issue which relates specifically to this study is that there is very little evidence about teachers planning their professional learning. An Australian study of professional learning '*The National Mapping of Teacher Professional Learning Project*' (Doecke et al, 2008) emphasised the importance of systematic planning of professional learning at an individual and school level as one of the key principles in successful professional learning. The Doecke and Parr study emphasises the collective responsibility for the planning of professional learning stating;

Governments, systems, regions, networks of schools, individual schools, groups of teachers within schools, and individual teachers need to share the responsibility of planning for professional learning. Alongside planning for students' learning, planning for teacher professional learning should receive sustained and focused attention, as a necessary condition to enhancing students' learning and engagement in schooling

(2008, p.220).

Their evidence is of teachers planning collaboratively on specific projects but it does not mention the extent of teacher involvement in the planning of their own learning. However the emphasis on collaborative responsibility and consequently the common ownership of teacher professional learning is a valuable and significant aspiration. It acknowledges the complexity of planning to meet the varying needs of the institution and the individual but emphasises that planning for individual professional learning can have an impact at a whole school level.

The Best Evidence Synthesis on Professional Learning (Timperley et al., 2007) examining professional development in New Zealand, whilst not having any specific evidence of the planning of professional learning, makes a similar recommendation about the collaborative nature of professional learning between the school and the individual. One of the perspectives from education in England can be found in the TDA report on CPD (2008). It found that teachers tend not to make connections between CPD and strategic processes such as school improvement (Opfer and Pedder, 2011b).

Effective planning of professional learning would seem to be critical to the development and embedding of new skills and knowledge. Timperley stresses the importance of the

supported development of pedagogical content knowledge in the development of greater teacher expertise that will impact on student learning. The evidence is that meeting the professional learning needs of teachers in the context of the development needs of a school is a complex task. At the same time teachers, as part of their professionalism, may well have to balance their learning needs with the wider development issues of the school or setting in which they work. However there is evidence in the reports cited above that there are strong benefits to the school if they engage in collaborative planning with their teachers in the planning of both institution development and individual learning. This would seem to be an aspiration rather than strongly evidenced as something widely in practice (Pedder and Opfer, 2011).

Kelly (2006) contrasts the cognitive model of teachers' learning that focuses on the acquisition of knowledge and skill by mental and cognitive processes with a socio-cultural view that takes into account the practice based knowledge of the teacher where professional identity plays an important part in the learning process. If teachers see themselves as skilled learners supported by a school system that has a strong learning culture they are likely to find learning easier than teachers in schools with less developed staff learning cultures.

Collaborative learning has become a significant focus in the development of teacher learning. Kelly (2006) suggests that many CPD opportunities based on traditional models of courses and events use a cognitive model of learning, ignoring the on-going collaborative nature of teacher – teacher learning and teacher – student development of learning that takes place as a dynamic process after the initial acquisition of knowledge. Eraut (1994) makes the claim that, “a significant proportion of learning associated with any change in practice takes place in the context of use” (p.33). He says that knowledge

needs to be relevant to a current teachers' experience and that new knowledge is embedded as a learnt experience through extended practice.

Learning needs to be relevant to the practice of the teacher and the teacher also has to have the capacity to embed that learning in the classroom. New ideas not only take time to incorporate but require additional effort and energy beyond the normal effort required to teach, making the relevance of new knowledge important. This is true of any new knowledge; effective learning takes place when the knowledge is of relevance and there is time and capacity to embed the learning. The work by authors such as Schön (1983) Pollard (2005) and Day (2002) emphasises the importance of the capacity to reflect on and embed learning as part of the routine necessary for effective learning. Reflective practice forms a pivotal concept in the movement from a technicist view of teacher learning to a more professional view of learning (Eraut, 1994). However, a lack of time and capacity in terms of workload are reported by teachers as potential barriers to opportunities for reflection.

A significant focus within literature related to professional development is on the value of collaborative learning and learning networks. Wenger (1999) developed the concept of communities of practice, groups of people with a common interest where learning takes place as a result of activity within the community. As highlighted in the section on professionalism, collaborative practice is a strong element of transformative professionalism, and the evidence is that collaborative learning and professional learning communities can support teachers engaging in professional learning (Cordingley et al, 2005; Timperley, 2007). The support they provide is in providing a common forum for teachers to articulate and develop their learning, and to plan and organise particular professional learning strategies. They can also form a distraction

and there is a need for clear frameworks and terms of reference (Timperley, 2007). Opfer and Pedder (2010) and Cordingley et al. (2005) found that whilst there is good evidence of the effectiveness of collaborative professional learning, teachers' approaches to their CPD tend not to be collaborative and need to be supported more in school in pursuing collaborative approaches to learning. The demanding nature of teachers' schedules means that teachers need to be able to plan which elements of their professional learning to pursue. It may be that collaborative opportunities naturally arise as part of training days in school or courses teachers participate in but the implication is that teachers are not planning to specifically engage in collaborative opportunities.

Autonomy in professional learning will vary from school to school and will be influenced by the leadership cultures and the structures and systems that support teachers in taking responsibility for their own learning. Professional autonomy will influence the degrees of freedom that individual teachers have in taking ownership for their professional learning. Holton, Knowles and Swanson (2012) emphasise that when adults learn they demonstrate greater levels of independence, autonomy and self-direction. They noted that adults need to feel responsible for the direction of their learning and are more interested in learning where there are strong internal motivators and where there is strong relevance. This need for autonomy in learning was also identified by Bolam and Weindling (2006). They found that teachers need to have a strong sense of autonomy and control over their professional development. The findings confirmed that the more influence teachers have over their own learning the more likely they are to consider it effective. Whilst the Bolam and Weindling report articulates the importance of autonomy in professional learning it does not actually

discuss whether teachers were able to say that they felt they had a high level of autonomy in professional learning.

2.6. CPD

This section of chapter 2 looks at CPD from the perspective of the school as well as the use of transformative models of CPD. The research questions examine the planning of professional learning from the perspective of the teacher and from the perspective of the school and its support of teacher professional development and learning. I will be gathering data in two special schools to build two case studies to establish whether the schools are able to support the professional learning of their teachers through their professional development programmes. The intention is to examine whether there is clarity about the purpose of CPD and how the pressures experienced by the schools impact on the delivery of CPD. There are two elements to CPD provision. Firstly there are the activities that staff participate in and secondly there are CPD processes, systems, organisation and evaluations. Ofsted's findings over the last decade (2002, 2006 and 2010) were that the systems and processes supporting CPD were not robust in many schools and that isolated activities have little benefit.

Freidman (2000) suggests that teachers perceive CPD as an ambiguous concept. He identifies ambiguities around divided views on the purpose and value of CPD and the perceived pressures experienced by schools and teachers in the delivery of CPD. CPD for teachers in England covers a range of formal and informal opportunities. The formal opportunities include: the five training days, included in teachers' terms and conditions, external and internal courses offered in school time and twilight sessions. Academic courses include post graduate and Masters level qualifications, and

professional qualifications such as middle leader and Headteacher qualifications. Other organised opportunities include peer observation, coaching and mentoring, action learning groups or practitioner research in school. Informal opportunities could include CPD arising from membership of professional associations or teacher unions, conversations or informal opportunities to work with colleagues. Some of these opportunities are available at no cost to the school or teacher, for example examination information courses provided by exam boards. With others the funding may be partly or wholly funded by the school. This varies from school to school, for example funding for a masters qualification may be partly or fully funded by the school or the teacher may have to cover the full cost. Another main organisational issue which schools may perceive as a pressure is the issue of timing. Is staff cover available in school time to allow teachers to attend training or does the development opportunity need be organised outside of the school day? The organisational issues of cost and time sit alongside the strategic planning of national priorities, school improvement planning, performance management and individual staff priorities for CPD.

In the late 2000's the TDA commissioned and funded four research projects to support the development of a strategy for CPD. The intention was to improve its evidence base about teacher professional development and the provision and quality of CPD (Pedder et al., 2008), through investigation into the range and kinds of support that schools in England provide as well as the range and kind of CPD activities in which teachers were able to participate. The State of the Nation review agrees with many of the findings reported in these and similar studies carried out on CPD in England since 2000 and the overall impression is that CPD provision has not developed substantially despite the input of government under the auspices of the TDA.

It seems that there is little empirical evidence about the ownership of professional learning by individual teachers. Pedder and Opfer (2010) found that there was little evidence that there was greater alignment between performance management and CPD and that, “Teachers are less likely to attend CPD because of a professional development plan” (p.438). The context of the performance management is the professional standards for teachers (TDA, 2007a) and the intention is that teachers progress through those standards or use those standards to develop their expertise. It can be argued that situating the planning of teacher professional development as a part of performance management will promote a standards based model of CPD planning and provision (Kennedy, 2005) whilst not encouraging greater degrees of professional autonomy as professional learners.

Teachers’ perceptions of the nature and purpose of CPD have been slow to change over the last decade. Bolam and Weindling (2006) found that ‘Overall, teachers had a traditional view of CPD, seeing it in terms of courses, conferences and workshops and were unlikely to consider personal research and on-line learning as part of their professional development.’(p.26). This traditional view of CPD will impact on what approaches teachers plan to use in their professional learning and their expectation of what the school should provide. Similarly, the evidence is that traditional approaches to CPD such as day courses make teachers aware of new knowledge and skills but do not enable teachers to turn their new knowledge into real learning that brings about transformative changes in their practice. Boyle, Boyle and White (2004) found that:

The international literature indicates that traditional approaches to professional development, such as short workshops or conference attendance, do foster teachers’ awareness or interest in deepening their knowledge and skills.

However, these approaches to professional development appear insufficient to

foster learning which fundamentally alters what teachers teach or how they teach.

(p.4)

This expectation by teachers of a training model of CPD, coupled with the evidence of a lack of effectiveness of this model without time for the transformation of that knowledge into learning, potentially creates a situation in which school CPD provision does not support teacher learning.

Patrick, Forde and McPhee (2003) identify the importance of “balancing the social process of change and improvement in school with the individual development and empowerment of teachers.” However many schools have found this a challenge to implement, and Ofsted (2005) also found evidence of a weak link between school CPD and individual teacher professional learning. Cordingley et al. (2005), in a systematic review, and Bolam and Weindling (2006) found evidence that the relationship between the processes of CPD in schools and the professional learning of the individual teacher are often unclear. More recently Pedder et al. (2008) still found that many schools have difficulty in balancing school and individual teacher needs. One of the consequences of the failure of schools to adequately prioritise the professional learning of individual teachers must be on the long term professional learning of many teachers. This in turn will have an impact on teachers’ attitudes to professional development. Whilst the links between school planning of CPD and the professional learning needs of teachers are unclear it does not necessarily mean that CPD is ineffective in addressing professional learning needs. The reported weaknesses are in the organisational links between CPD and professional learning at the school planning level. If schools planned

to meet teachers' professional learning needs more coherently, the outcomes of teacher professional learning might well improve.

Greater levels of coherence in the planning and organisation of CPD extend to the types of CPD activity provided by schools. There is a considerable range of literature on what constitutes effective professional development. The recent focus on the effectiveness of CPD has been on the impact of CPD on all areas of student learning and development. This may have been an influence of the performative culture pervading the education system under New Labour. The TDA promoted the logic impact model based partly on the work of Guskey (2000) and his hierarchical 'levels' model of evaluating professional development. Guskey used five levels to evaluate CPD, the first being the CPD activity itself and the top level being the impact of CPD on student learning. The TDA models were based on sampling and measurement of CPD effectiveness against defined performance criteria (2010) but Lydon and King (2009) highlight the difficulties of linking CPD outcomes with an impact on student learning. Keay and Lloyd (2011) have recently developed a model to help teachers take responsibility for their learning, focusing on the needs of the students at the start of the process. The advantage of this approach is that evaluating the impact of professional learning is supported by the identification of the impact on student learning at the start of the development process. It is, however, dependent on a staff culture that supports more collaborative models of professional development.

The demonstration of value for money and effective use of time are valid professional development processes as is demonstrating the impact of professional development on student learning, but the focus is often on the impact of development programmes rather

than the professional learning that teachers have engaged in. Coldwell and Simpkins' (2011) critique of approaches to evaluation that use hierarchical levels of evaluation demonstrated that whilst they may provide a starting point:

They do not typically give enough attention to the real mechanisms through which outcomes are achieved either in their specificity or complexity; and for some constructivists they are based on reductionist instrumental assumptions that pervert the complex reality of genuine professional learning.

(p.153)

I would agree with the argument that it is important to know what it is that is being measured and useful to define the purpose and process of evaluation using multiple models. The challenge is that this is a highly sophisticated model of evaluating teacher learning that is not currently utilised by most CPD leaders.

As highlighted earlier there is considerable evidence from research that CPD that is collaborative, classroom based and research informed can be highly effective (Cordingley et al. 2005a; Bolam and Weindling 2006). These characteristics can also be found in the definition of effective CPD by the TDA (2007b) and I would agree with Pedder et al. (2010) that this creates a challenge. Conflict arises between the centralised control and provision of CPD through the TDA or similar Government funded agencies and the professional autonomy and innovation required to create a culture of classroom based professional development by teachers in schools.

The State of the Nation study (Pedder et al., 2010) developed a model that suggested that teacher learning cannot be investigated in isolation. It stated that:

Thus, our conceptual model suggests that we cannot understand teacher learning by investigating these influences on teacher learning in isolation from one another. To understand and explain why and how teachers learn, we must consider how a teacher's individual learning orientation interacts with the school-level learning orientation and how both of these orientations together impact the activities (and features of activities) in which teachers participate.

(p.392)

Teacher learning needs to be considered in the context of school level processes and activities. The professional development activities that the teacher engages in also need to be related to his / her professional learning. The paper by Kennedy (2011) looking at collaborative CPD amongst primary teachers in Scotland provides an interesting insight into teachers' views of collaborative CPD and the methods that can be used to investigate teacher learning. The paper demonstrates that the teachers in the sample have an 'aspirational' view of collaborative CPD but that there are barriers to its effective use and divergent views of its definition. The paper emphasises the importance of informal CPD as opposed to planned CPD. Planned CPD in this case is CPD organised in advance rather than informal professional development as a result of serendipity, for example those chance encounters and conversations in school and at structured CPD events. Kennedy uses what she describes as three lenses to investigate collaborative CPD:

- The influences on professional learning – e.g. personal, social or occupational
- The capacity for professional autonomy and transformative practice supported by the professional learning

- The sphere of action of the professional learning e.g. is the learning formal, informal, planned or incidental

She suggests that this gives a more nuanced view of learning which agrees with the approach developed in the State of the Nation study (Opfer & Pedder, 2011a). In the case studies I have attempted to look at both teacher professional learning and the CPD activities they have engaged in. I have situated the teachers in the context of the professional development processes taking place in their schools and, using two lenses have examined the issues from the perspective of the teacher and from the perspective of the school.

The second of these two perspectives, the perspective of the school, examines how the CPD systems and activities at work in a school support the professional learning of the teacher and whether there is any evidence that a transformative focus on CPD provision in a school is more supportive of the professional learning of the individual teacher.

Kelly (2006) highlights the need for investigation into the way CPD processes in school support the identity of the teacher as a professional learner. This raises the important issue of whether teachers need to see themselves as learners before they can take ownership of their learning. Kennedy (2005) categorised CPD provision into a framework of different models; the training model, award bearing model, deficit model, cascade model, standards based model, coaching / mentoring model, community of practice model, action research model, and transformative model. These models are organised in a horizontal list with the first being more transmissive approaches to CPD and the latter more transformative approaches. Kennedy acknowledges that there are other ways of classifying CPD.

My own perspective is that whilst there are other models, Kennedy's form a useful structure to look at the value of transmissive or transformative approaches in supporting the ownership of professional learning. There is also a place for each of the models in a CPD programme, for example increasing staff knowledge about the support of students with diabetes would require some training sessions, while understanding how a particular programme supports student reading skills could require a community of practice model. Both are valid approaches although one model merely delivers new knowledge and skills whereas the latter creates an expectation that the teachers see themselves as learners.

Sachs (2003), commenting on professional identity, emphasises the collaborative and reflective nature of developing professional knowledge and also the transformative potential of professionalism that is essentially a tripartite activity balancing academic, practical and creative activity. The ontological dimension to learning as described by Dall'Alba, (2009) and its relevance to transformative models of learning supports the work by Kennedy on models of CPD. Dall'Alba suggests that learning at a deeper level is more than knowledge acquisition or the participation in a programme or event; it is the meaningful engagement with new thought that results in a personal change. In order for professional development to have an impact on student outcomes there has to be a change in teacher practice. This necessitates not just the acquisition of new knowledge through transmissive models of CPD but a change in attitudes, beliefs and actions that result in changes in practice through transformative models of learning. Wenger (1999) also argues that learning is not just the acquisition of knowledge stating that, 'Because learning transforms who we are and what we can do, it is an experience of identity. It is not just an accumulation of skills and information, but also a process of becoming' (p.215). Dall'Alba also focuses attention on the ontology of learning

(2009) and states that, “Learning to become a professional involves not only what we know and can do, but also who we are (becoming)” (p.34). A teacher’s professional knowledge and professional identity is developed through his / her professional learning. The focus of this study is on the planning and ownership of learning but if a clear distinction is to be made between CPD and professional learning then the potential transformative impact of learning on the learner needs to be acknowledged. This requires an emphasis that the difference between CPD and professional learning is not just a difference of terminology but also a conceptual difference that goes beyond the accumulation of knowledge and skills.

As well as ontological considerations in the methodology there are also ontological considerations in the final research question: ‘Is there any evidence that a more transformative focus of CPD provision in a school is more supportive of the professional learning of the individual teacher?’ The ontological dimension of learning is about changes to an individual’s perceptions of reality and changes to his / her behaviours. If professional learning has an ontological dimension, as Dall’Alba (2009) would argue, then it has the potential to have a transformative effect on the teacher. Kennedy’s (2005) Framework of Models of CPD (diagram 1 in Chapter 1) includes a transformative model (model 9). She examined models of CPD in the context of teacher autonomy; however her model can be used to examine teachers’ perceptions of different types of CPD and their opinions about the capacity of those types of CPD to bring about transformative changes in professional practice. This is potentially the most challenging issue to gather data about, in trying to establish if there is a link between transformative CPD and professional learning.

2.7. Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature relating to the issue of the planning and ownership of professional learning. The first section discussed the lack of clarity and considerable debate about the relevance and conceptualisation of the terms professional development and professional learning. The chapter examined different models of professionalism, particularly managerial and transformative / democratic professionalism. It compared the impact of these different models of professionalism on professional knowledge and professional learning. The discussion on different types of professional knowledge examined the influence they may have on professional learning choices.

The section on professional learning focused on the engagement of teachers in their learning. Teachers as learners are motivated by an understanding of the relevance of learning to their practice but often still identify professional learning with participation in training and courses rather than more collaborative models of professional development. The final section of the chapter examined the evidence that balancing national policy, school and individual priorities and ensuring that CPD provision effectively caters for different types of need has proved difficult for schools. Models of CPD that include transformative modes of learning may provide teachers with more opportunities to engage in the planning and ownership of their learning. The next chapter presents and discusses the methodology used in the thesis and the specific methods used in the collection of data.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1. Introduction

When undertaking an Education Doctorate (EdD) the doctoral student has a dual role as both practitioner and researcher. Stenhouse (1985) and Bassey (1992) have championed the importance of the practitioner- researcher in supporting the development of education policy and practice. They also emphasise the significance, for the doctoral student, of the opportunity to investigate a pertinent professional issue in greater depth and the chance to develop a deeper and more critical understanding of different research methods. The latter represents one of the challenges. The development of a deeper understanding of research methodologies and the trial and use of different research methods for the first time can present a significant hurdle. However, the opportunity to trial new approaches as part of a systematic and critical piece of enquiry is an important and valuable part of the doctoral process (Lin et al., 2011).

The first two chapters explored the context and then the literature relevant to the research questions; this chapter presents and critically examines the research design of this enquiry. It discusses what Creswell summarises as, ‘the plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis’ (Creswell, 2009, p.5). McIntyre (1998) in a paper, ‘Arguing for an interpretive method’ states:

...it might be better to give more attention to understanding research as practice, making the locus of argument the process of inquiry and the agency of the

researcher, where methodology as something constructed not given, something which develops hand-in-hand with the theorising of the 'research problem'.

(McIntyre, 1998, p.161)

McIntyre proposes that it is more helpful to locate the arguments for choosing a specific methodology closer to research practice, situated within a research tradition, rather than arguing for a specific methodology linked to a particular paradigm. Locating the arguments for the selection of a research methodology closer to research practice is potentially a more pragmatic approach for the practitioner- researcher. It would seem that this pragmatic approach avoids the pitfall of firstly selecting a specific paradigm and then ensuring that the research methodology fits with the paradigmatic boundaries.

Whilst it is not within the scope of this chapter to engage in a detailed examination of the paradigms or research traditions available to educational research, it is necessary to justify the specific choices that led to situating the study within a particular research tradition. In describing the overarching epistemological and ontological perspective of a particular methodology, which Creswell (2009) identifies as the researcher's 'worldview', McIntyre's approach to the research design is a helpful one. If it is possible to utilise it without getting unduly entrenched in terminology, the starting point for considering a chosen methodology is the philosophical boundaries the researcher is working within and the path the researcher has followed to arrive at a specific methodology.

Creswell's (2009) use of the term research design to refer to the 'plan or proposal to conduct the research' (p.5) supports the approach used by McIntyre in locating research close to the question it intends to answer. He then situates the design within the

philosophical tradition and epistemological and ontological perspectives. The selected strategy of enquiry is explained and then the specific methods for gathering and analysing data are discussed along with consideration of the limitations, ethics, validity and reliability of the research. In adopting both McIntyre and Creswell's approaches this section begins by situating the chosen research design of this study within an interpretive tradition followed by a discussion of the theoretical perspective and the rationale for the research strategy (Bridges, 1997, Crotty, 1998). The second section of the methodology is an outline and discussion of the specific methods used in the study, the practical details and ethical considerations. The diagram below summarises the overall research design. The headings and structure are taken from a diagram used by Creswell (2009) to demonstrate the elements of research design.

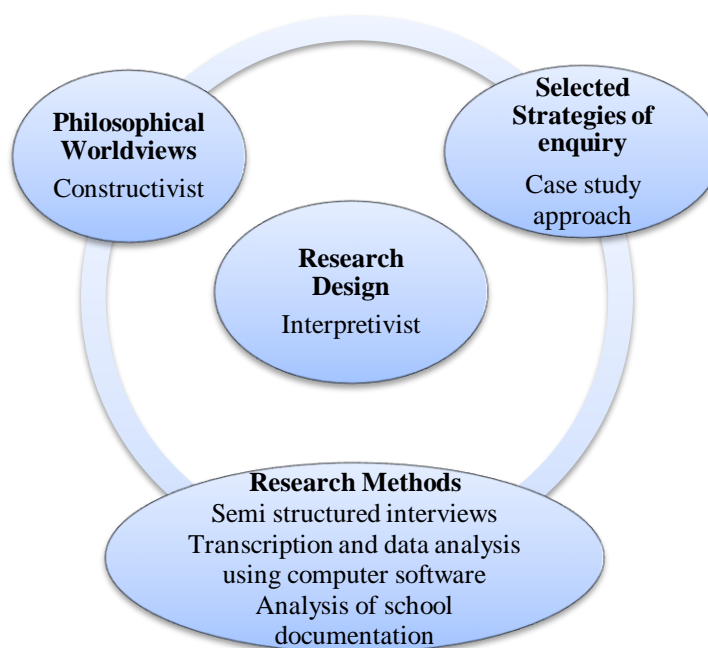


Diagram 2: A framework for the research design adapted from Creswell (2009)

Where it differs from Creswell is that he groups strategies of inquiry into qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. This study uses an interpretive design situated in a constructivist worldview, it identifies case study as the strategy of inquiry and the type

of data as qualitative data. My choice of methodology was influenced by the taught element of the EdD programme where I explored qualitative research methods. Having come from a scientific background I was interested in approaches that were less reductionist and allowed the voices of the participants to be heard in a manner that more positivist, quantitative approaches could not. This led to a deliberate choice to use an interpretive research approach even though this was not familiar territory.

3.2. Research Design

This study is a piece of social research within the context of education. The question focuses on the opinions and behaviours of teachers and the factors that may influence those behaviours. There is a complex interplay of circumstances that influence the extent to which teachers are able to plan and own their professional learning (Opfer and Pedder 2011a).

The research questions concern the planning and ownership of professional learning from the perspective of the teachers. How do they feel and what do they think about their planning and ownership of professional learning? How does the school support that professional learning and are there models of professional development that are more transformative in their impact on the teachers? In examining the issues I had my own opinions but not theories on which to base the research. The motivation was to investigate the questions without presuppositions. Having previously worked with more positivist methodologies I was interested in collecting qualitative data and drawing on interpretive approaches to examine that data in order to provide answers to the research questions.

3.2.1. Ontological considerations

Interpretive research seeks to understand a phenomenon from the perspective of those experiencing it. Interpretivism has its background in phenomenological and constructivist thought (Blaikie, 1993) where meanings are created by people as they engage with the world they are interpreting, based on their own historical and social perspective and their experiences and backgrounds (Schwandt, 2005). Schwandt summarizes the position of the interpretivist:

The constructivist or interpretivist believes that to understand this world or meaning one must interpret it. The inquirer must elucidate the process of meaning construction and clarify what and how meanings are embodied in the language and actions of social actors. To prepare an interpretation is itself to construct a reading of those meanings.

(Schwandt, 2005, p.40)

An interpretivist approach involves ontology where:

Social reality is regarded as the product of processes by which social actors together negotiate the meaning for actions and situations: it is a complex of socially constructed meaning.

(Blaikie, 1993, p.96)

Blaikie agrees with Schwandt, arguing that social reality is not some 'thing' that may be interpreted in different ways; it is those interpretations. Hence in contrast to physical reality, social reality is pre-interpreted by actors or participants. The researcher is examining the interpretations of the participants and the consequences of those interpretations, which Schwandt described as a 'reading of meanings'.

Heidegger (1978) uses the term ‘Dasein’ to focus attention on ways of revealing meaning in our everyday lives. He often uses the term to articulate the everydayness of existence. In relationship to the question of teacher professional learning the term can highlight the ordinariness of the practice of learning in that it is a regular activity that may have an impact on professional identity and practice. The intention of this thesis is to explore with the participants how they are able to plan and organise their learning, how learning fits within the context of their jobs and whether there is the potential for it to have transformative impact on their practice. This involves the researcher constructing a reading of the meaning the participants have given to their experiences of CPD and professional learning (Schwandt, 2005). Heidegger’s philosophy encourages the consideration of the collective existence of people, the ontology of social interaction and the impact of collaborative practice. In the case of teachers working as part of a team or whole staff at a special school, the collective development of professional learning practices is important. The special school teacher does not work in isolation; teachers work together, with support staff and with professionals such as speech and language therapists and therefore they have the potential to create knowledge collaboratively.

These ontological considerations seek an understanding of a complex world of lived experience. It is a focus on the point of view of those who live it, a concern with the ‘lifeworld’ and to understanding meaning from the perspective of the participants in the study. Schwandt (1994) describes this constructivist position, “The world of lived reality and situation-specific meanings that constitute the general object of investigation is thought to be constructed by social actors” (Schwandt, 1994, p.118). This is a constructivist / interpretivist tradition that would, in the case of this thesis, situate

teachers in special schools, working with other teachers and educational professionals. Professional development is a social collaborative experience where the interactions and experiences shape teacher attitudes and perceptions. I think that the value of using an interpretivist approach is that it creates the opportunity for the detailed examination of different perspectives and readings of the same situation. Teachers planning their professional learning, possibly in the context of performance management, and then participating in professional development activities can be viewed through three lenses. One lens is the interpretation and reading of those social circumstances by the teachers. A second lens is the interpretation of those circumstances or events by the special school's CPD Leader and a third lens is the examination of school documentation which helps to explain the context in which the teachers are operating. An interpretive approach allows the scrutiny and comparison of different readings, whilst making the important acknowledgement that the interpretation of the data is in itself a reading of the meaning attributed by the participants who were interviewed.

Critics of interpretism argue that a focus on contextual meaning creates a lack of transferability of the findings to other contexts (Hammersley, 1992). There is a strong case for stating that the significance of the context makes the generalising of the findings highly contentious. However one intention of an interpretive study is not that the findings are replicable or transferable, but that the findings contribute to the sum of knowledge known about a particular field, adding new insights and perspectives. As a practitioner-researcher my intention is that the results are applicable and relevant to my practice and the practice of other professionals in special schools. Another limitation raised about the use of an interpretive design is the danger that the conclusions drawn about the data are highly subjective, as in Schwandt's 'constructing a reading of the meaning within the data'. Stake (2010) highlights the need for routines of triangulation

as part of data gathering, and analysis as a mechanism for addressing issues of subjectivity. Blaikie (1993) emphasises the need for specificity in choosing a methodology because all methodologies and approaches have their limitations. An interpretive approach fits the outcomes of this study. These were to examine the extent to which the teachers in the two special schools were able to plan and own their learning through their perceptions, through the perceptions of the CPD leaders and through the manner in which the issues are represented in the documentary data.

3.2.2. Epistemological considerations

The epistemology in this study is situated more closely to social epistemology; it is not a search for justified truth in a classical epistemic sense. Social epistemology looks for the social processes involved in learning and participants' understanding of knowledge within their social context (Fuller, 2007). The epistemology is knowledge derived from the participants and their everyday experiences in their work and learning.

The epistemological perspective of knowledge underpinning this piece of research is a constructivist one, with individual actors (in this case teachers) constructing their knowledge within the context of their social experiences. In constructivist epistemology the validity of the participant's knowledge is provided by the context in which the knowledge has been created and by the context of the research process (Philips, 1978).

The nature of the knowledge examined in this study will be relative and subjective knowledge gathered through interviewing teachers. The knowledge will be constructed by the teachers in the study and by the researcher in carrying out the study. There will

also be knowledge contained in the study that is collective, political and social knowledge, for example that which is commonly understood about professionalism, learning, the context of teachers working in schools, and in particular special schools. Habermas (1995) can help in clarifying the representation of knowledge. Habermas argues against the over quantification and abstraction of knowledge, i.e. removing knowledge from its context and imposing on knowledge abstract layers of meaning. There is a choice for the researcher in how knowledge will be viewed in context and how many layers of meaning will be superimposed on the original data by the process of analysis and interpretation of the data. The intention was to be able to present the data as case study summaries in the discussion of the findings in chapter five. The aim was to impose as few layers of additional meaning as possible; however some additional layers of interpretation were inevitable in analysing and summarising the data as case studies in order to answer the research questions.

3.2.3. Role of the researcher

Clarity is important when defining the intention of the researcher and the role of the researcher in relation to both the subject and the reader. In defining this role it is important to consider how the researcher is working with the participants, i.e. if the researcher is working with, for, or on the subject (Freire, 1996). There is a need for carefully contextualised consideration of the means by which the researcher selects and analyses sources of data. Lather (1992) describes a plurality of methodologies where there is a, “change enhancing, reciprocally educative encounter” (1992, p.92). She is challenging the attitudes the researcher has about the subjects, emphasising the need to work with the subject rather than on the subject. During research interviews there is a more limited opportunity to work with the subject and for a change enhancing encounter

that is of benefit to the subject, a less structured approach to interviews can ensure it is more of a dialogue, giving greater reciprocity.

Cherryholmes (1999) suggests an essential contextualising of the subject, framing and reframing the data in order to gain a holistic picture of the subject. This notion of framing and reframing accurately describes the process of gathering and analysing the data. Raw data goes through a number of iterations before it reaches the final form in which it is submitted to readers, and at each iterative stage there are reflections on the degree to which the summaries and analyses represent a picture of the teachers participating in the research. In reflecting on Freire's (1996) perspective of the relationship between the researcher and the participants, it is the intention to work for teachers in a professional context rather than on or with the teachers involved in the study. Working on teachers would be to see them as subjects of the study and working with them would require a more participatory methodology. The chosen methodology involves the teachers as interviewees so their participatory involvement is limited. As a practitioner-researcher with a professional involvement in teacher professional development, it would be hoped that this thesis can make a contribution to understanding how teachers in special schools can be supported in the planning and ownership of their professional learning. It is in this context that the intention would be to work for teachers. My primary role is that of a researcher but there is an acknowledgement of my secondary role as a practitioner which introduces a degree of subjectivity that is important to recognise.

3.2.4. Research Approaches

Having established that the overall methodology is situated in an interpretive tradition it is necessary to describe the theoretical perspectives underpinning the specific methods that will be used to collect, organise and analyse the data. Although they use the term qualitative, Denzin and Lincoln clearly articulate the characteristics and purposes of a study of this type:

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) define qualitative research as:

... a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world.

(Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p.3)

The nature of this doctoral study is that it is a piece of small scale practitioner research. My interest is in a detailed understanding of two groups of teachers in two schools using the research questions in order to consider the experiences of those teachers. The questions are concerned with individual action and behaviours, ‘Do teachers plan?’ and individual perceptions and beliefs, ‘Do teachers have ownership of their professional learning?’ Concepts of professionalism, learning and the ownership and planning of learning could be analysed on a large scale, i.e. what are the general responses of a large number of teachers, are there any observable patterns in the behaviours of large groups of individuals. However, in this case the interest is in teachers situated in special

schools, and an understanding of the complexities of social interaction that leads to particular beliefs and behaviours in relation to professional learning. In selecting how many teachers to include it has to be sufficient to give a breadth of data but few enough to allow a detailed analysis. In this study the number of teachers that were interviewed in the schools was eight.

The starting point of this study is not a theory but four questions. The answers to these questions are going to be complex with multiple layers and levels of interaction and interpretation. Lincoln and Guba (1985) would assert that within this type of inquiry, the realities are multiple, constructed, and holistic and the inquiry is value-bound. The case studies provide the focal point of the around which the questions and the interrelated issues can be examined with a focus on what Heck (2005) describes as 'sense making' or the social construction of reality. The analysis of data in both the initial stages during the collection of data and in the process of carrying out a thematic analysis through coding of the text will use inductive reasoning similar to that described by Thomas (2003) as:

To establish clear links between the research objectives and the summary findings derived from the raw data and to ensure these links are both transparent (able to be demonstrated to others) and defensible (justifiable given the objectives of the research).

(p.2)

Qualitative data collected from multiple sources is used to build case studies and create the backgrounds and contextual evidence (Robson, 2002). The purpose of using qualitative data in an interpretive methodology is that the findings can be contextualised by the setting, the findings are emergent and the intention is to look for complexity and create a developing understanding of the issues. The findings are exploratory with a

search for patterns and themes in order to suggest theories in answer to the research questions (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Case studies have been variously referred to within educational research as a methodology (Flyvbjerg, 2006), as a research strategy (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998), as a research approach (Robson, 2002) and as a research method (Yin, 1984, 2012; Crotty, 1998). There is significant overlap in the way the terms are used and it seems often to depend on which term the author has a preference for, for example the term strategy appears to be interchangeable with approach. The key difference is whether case study is positioned as a methodology, strategy / approach or method and how it fits within the overall research design. This study uses case study as the approach through which the data is organised and analysed. It is the mechanism through which the data is used to examine the research questions within the overall interpretive methodology and as a part of the research design. The data is drawn from interviews with teachers and CPD leaders and documentation from each school.

Yin defines a case study as:

An empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomena within its real life context especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

(Yin, 1994, p.13)

The purpose of using case study as a method is to gain a detailed understanding of a phenomenon whilst situating it in what can be seen as ‘real life settings’. The advantages of case studies are that they can be grounded in the ‘lived reality’ of the interviewees and their experiences of the schools as well as the issues in the schools that

impact on their professional learning. Case studies can retain what Hodgkinson and Hodgkinson (2001) call the ‘noise of real life’. This noise, which the researcher deliberately includes as part of the case study, can contain elements that are significant parts of the story. Case studies acknowledge the noise and accept that it can make a valuable contribution to the findings. It supports the exploration of the unexpected and unusual through the gathering of a large amount of data, whilst providing insight into the questions under consideration.

Hodgkinson and Hodgkinson (2001) discuss the benefits of using case studies in understanding complex situations by illustrating the complex interconnections between different elements of the narrative within a case. They also highlight the benefits of using case studies to facilitate rich conceptual and theoretical development:

Existing theories can be brought up against complex realities, and the very richness of the data can help generate new thinking and new ideas. Though thick description can be valuable in its own right, case study research really demonstrates its relevance when such new or modified thinking takes place.

(p. 7)

Exploring the issue of the ownership and planning of professional learning is complex. For example, the professional experiences and learning experiences of the teachers interviewed for the research may influence the degree to which they feel empowered to plan and own their professional learning. It may be that the CPD culture of the school they work in is an influencing factor in the planning and ownership of professional learning. Case study as an approach supports the exploration of such complexity.

Using data, in the form of interviews with a group of teachers from each school and documentation about the organisation and provision of CPD by the school, to build the case studies supports the focus of the research on teachers and their experiences within their context. It enables each case study to be viewed as a whole before the themes and findings are drawn out. Case studies can be used within a range of research paradigms (Luck, Jackson & Usher, 2006) depending on the specific research methods being utilised. In this study the data is qualitative and the case studies are described and compared using an interpretive methodology. The use of case studies has enabled the description and understanding of the 'lived experience' of teachers in relation to their professional learning, with the subjects' situated in their local settings. The data in these case studies is local and subjective but it has created a focal point for an examination of wider and more general issues of teacher ownership and planning of professional learning (Noddings, 2007).

This subjectivity is one of the criticisms cited about the use of a case study approach. It is a limitation that can be raised about any type of research (Stake, 2010, Miles & Huberman, 1994) in that data is always interpreted in some way by the researchers as they seek to present their raw data in forms that illuminate the question or hypothesis under scrutiny. However it can be argued that there are degrees of subjectivity, with a continuum from the aim for objectivity to an acceptance of subjectivity. With case study approaches, within an interpretive tradition, subjectivity is accepted as part of the data interpretation, whilst aiming for a reasoned argument within the specific context (Yin, 2012). This leads to another limitation of case studies: that the data gathering can generate large amounts of data that is difficult to represent in a simplified form. In this study a balance was aimed for in collecting enough data in order to build the two case

studies and to answer the research questions whilst making the data gathering manageable within a small scale project.

Another arguable limitation is that the findings are less generalizable because of the specificity of the context of the data, for example in this study the data is about teachers working in special schools which is a highly specific context (Hodgkinson and Hodgkinson, 2001). It would be difficult to generalise findings to teachers working in mainstream schools and it could be argued that the findings should not even be generalised to other special schools as the data collected is specific to two special schools (Thomas, 2012). However, although the findings are context specific the conclusions can still have relevance and are applicable to teachers working in other phases and sectors of education because a significant component of teacher professionalism is professional learning as discussed in Chapter 2. The nature of this approach is that whilst it is context specific the detailed examination of a small group of teachers in two schools provides a richness of data that helps us understand the issues surrounding the question; this is the strength of adopting a case study approach (Gomm, Hammersley and Foster, 2000).

3.3. Methods

This section discusses the tools and processes used to gather the data necessary to examine the research question. The first part will provide a critical discussion about the methods that were used. Secondly there will be a consideration of the questions asked and the specific sources of evidence used to gather data to answer each sub-question. I will then move on to consider issues of ethics, and the validity and reliability of the data.

3.3.1. Selecting the number of case studies

In order to answer the research questions, the intention was to gather data about teachers working in special schools in order to build two case studies through which the planning and ownership of professional learning could be examined. Four teachers and the CPD leader at each school were interviewed using semi structured interviews. The interviews and data gathered about the schools they work in, through the analysis of documentation, were used to create the case studies. The specificity of the context means that the use of a case study approach was exploratory and explanatory (Gomm, Hammersley and Foster, 2000) with the potential to construct theories through an inductive approach. Yin's (1984) description of the use of case studies highlights the relevance of using this approach to study complex social situations:

In all of these situations, the distinctive need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena. In brief, the case study allows an investigation to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life

events – such as individual life cycles, organisational and managerial processes (p.14).

The value of Yin's premise in the use of a case study approach is in retaining a holistic view of complex data such as teachers' views about their professional learning.

The decision about the number of schools to be included and the number of teachers to be interviewed was determined by two factors. Firstly, having a larger number of teachers and using a wider range of special schools would not necessarily make the study more generalizable or less subjective because an interpretive methodology and case study approach is inherently subjective and therefore applicable rather than generalisable (Thomas, 2012). The data would still be from teachers in special schools and specific to that context. It would have been challenging to have broadened the geographical range of the schools to beyond a particular area of the United Kingdom. Secondly, using more case studies would have created the additional challenge of a larger amount of data to gather and analyse, which would have put pressure on the limited resources available in a small scale project. With these issues in mind I decided to use two case studies.

3.3.2. Recruiting schools and teachers

Four volunteers were recruited in each school with a range of years of service / experience. Selection was made by using a semi random method in that each school provided a list of teachers with the number of years that they had been teaching. The list of teachers was ordered according to their number of years' service and then a teacher was chosen at random from each of the following groups: 0-5 years, 6-10 years,

11-20 years and 21 years or more. The diagram below shows the organisation of the case studies within the research.

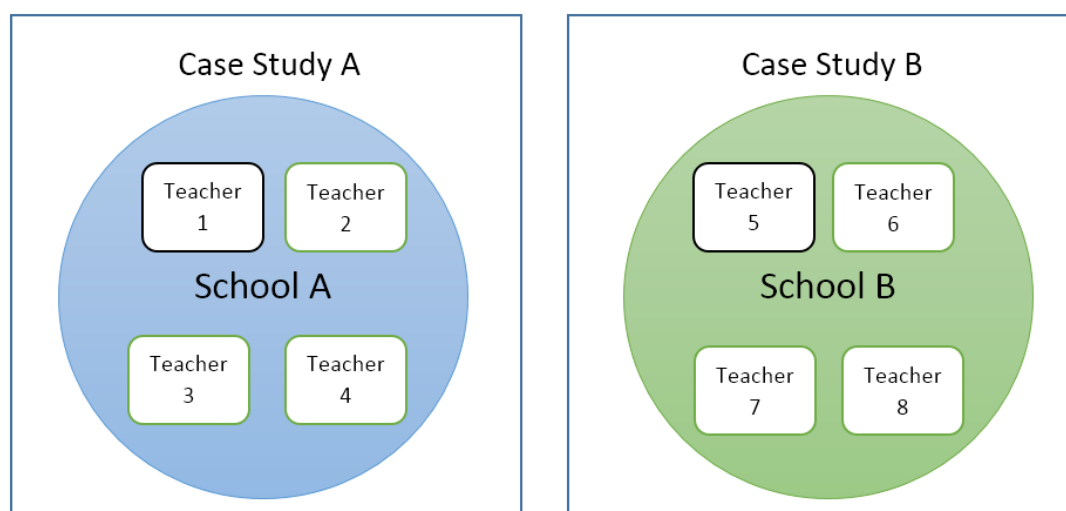


Diagram 3: Diagram to show structure of case studies

The research required negotiation with senior staff in the two schools to secure support for the project and then further negotiation with the teachers within the schools to participate in the project. The areas for negotiation with the schools were in the use of anonymised background information about the school, and willingness for a member of the leadership team to be interviewed. It also included agreement about support for the staff volunteering, release time to interview staff and anonymity for staff being interviewed. It was necessary to establish agreement to record the interviews at the point at which the teachers volunteered, in order to ensure consistency in the way the data was to be recorded.

The first two schools that were contacted responded positively and agreed to participate in the study. Liaison was with the Deputy Headteacher from the first school and an Assistant Headteacher at the second school. The schools provided a list of staff with the

number of years that they had been teaching. The lists were used to select four teachers from each school. All the teachers in the first selection agreed to participate.

3.3.3. Use of semi structured interviews

The primary source of data was semi structured interviews. In 1996 Kvale defined research interviews as:

An interview is a conversation that has a structure and a purpose. It goes beyond the spontaneous exchange of views as in everyday conversation, and becomes a careful questioning and listening approach with the purpose of obtaining thoroughly tested knowledge.

(Kvale, 1996, p.5)

In 2006 he redefined the research interview as:

The research interview is based on the conversations of daily life and is a professional conversation; it is an inter-view where knowledge is constructed in the inter-action between the interviewer and the interviewee. An interview is literally an inter-view, an interchange of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest.

(Kvale, 2008, p.2)

The first definition emphasises the order and purpose of the research interview with a focus on the role of the researcher as an active listener. The second definition emphasises the constructivist position where there is a construction of knowledge during the process of the interview. Interview as a method of data collection provides the freedom to probe an answer or response in more depth at the time. It allows the

interviewer to ask supplementary questions. Semi structured interviews facilitate a greater degree of probing through the use of themes with open questioning rather than clearly defined schedules with identical questions for each interviewee. They have the advantage of allowing the interviewer greater flexibility and the respondents more freedom in their responses. However, they are structured enough to allow comparisons between interviews whilst allowing the conversation to flow more naturalistically. In this study semi-structured interviews support the collection of in depth data from a smaller sample of participants.

The use of semi-structured interviews is not unproblematic. In this study I created the themes and questions, conducted the interviews and carried out the analysis. This increased the potential for the introduction of bias through the interviewing process so there was a greater need for reflection during the process of conducting the interviews. The flexibility of semi structured interviews could have lessened the reliability and there was a greater challenge in the analysis in comparing the responses to similar questions. Skill was needed in conducting the interview, hence the use of pilot interviews. It also required careful preparation to avoid asking questions that were prescriptive or leading. The semi structured interviews and interview process were piloted at a different special school in order to carry out an initial evaluation of the interview process. This provided an opportunity to test the validity of the questions and themes and test practical issues such as the length of time the interviews would take (Burgess, Sieminski & Arthur, 2006). Trial interviews were conducted with a teacher and a CPD leader at the pilot school. Two strategies were trialled to summarise the interviews. One of the interviews was transcribed and the other was listened to and notes made from it. A request was made for the interviewee to provide post interview feedback with comments on the questions and interview style. As a result of the pilot interviews:

- The introduction to the interview was shortened
- The style of the interview was adapted to make it less structured and more free flowing

Data, in the form of semi structured interviews and documentation, were gathered about each school in the main section of the study to support the development of the case studies. The documentation was requested about the school from the CPD Leader and included the CPD policy, performance management policy, school improvement plans and CPD plans. This documentation, as well as the information from each school website and Ofsted reports were intended to provide additional data about the role of CPD provision in the school in supporting staff professional learning. The documents were also examined using Nvivo 9, a qualitative software tool that enables the user to look for patterns using coding of the interview text. The use of Nvivo 9 is considered in more detail in Chapter 4 which discusses the process of analysis. Data from each teacher was gathered from two semi structured interviews. The documentation and the interviews were used to build a picture of the school context and the individual teachers in order the case studies.

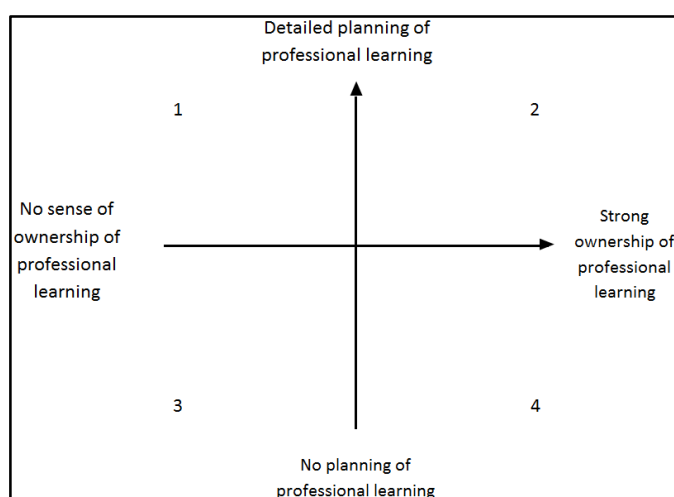
The design was flexible in that the questions for the second round of interviews were generated in response to the answers in the first round of interviews. Semi-structured interviews have the advantage of keeping the discussion broadly focused whilst creating a degree of flexibility that gives the subject the opportunity to talk in depth about the issues (Robson, 2002). They also help maintain a conversational style and allow responses to be situated in the teacher's own context (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). The first round of interviews with each group of teachers was conducted on the

same day in each school. This ensured that the opportunities for the teachers to discuss the questions outside of the interview process was minimised. The interviews were recorded using an MP3 voice recorder and were then externally transcribed. Once the transcripts of the interviews had been organised as case studies they were then used to develop the questions for the second round of interviews.

The first round of interviews was conducted in May and June of 2010. The second round of interviews was conducted in July 2010, apart from one interview at school A where one teacher was absent until the end of term. This interview was rescheduled for September 2010. The second round of interviews included the CPD leader interview. At the same time as the second interview, each school sent documentation relating to CPD. A summary of the project timescale can be found in Appendix 1.

During the second round of interviews two diagrams were used as a visual stimulus to support the discussion. Firstly, in order to examine the extent to which the teachers felt they had ownership or were able to plan their professional learning, a four quadrant matrix was designed (see below) as a stimulus for discussion. The quadrants represent the degree of planning and ownership of professional learning and were summarised as teacher types in the table.

Diagram 4: Matrix to map the planning and ownership of professional learning



The matrix was designed specifically for this piece of research. The teacher was asked to comment on where they saw themselves in the matrix and then their perceptions were discussed. Secondly, an adapted version of Kennedy's CPD model (2005) (Appendix 2) was used to support discussions about the third question relating to school support for professional learning and models of CPD. The adapted diagram included a description of each model taken from the original paper. This was intended to provide the interviewees with additional information about the purpose of each model.

3.3.4. Sources of evidence

The sources of evidence available were interviews with the teachers, documents from the schools and national policy literature relating to the research questions. The interviews with the teachers and school documentation were the primary sources of evidence in that they were conducted and gathered at the time the question was being researched with the people involved in the events themselves. The documents that were gathered from the schools related to the teachers' current post, and the whole school organisation and planning of CPD. The policy documents such as special educational needs legislation are secondary sources. The sources of evidence and how they relate to the research questions are summarized in Appendix 3.

3.3.5. Themes discussed in the semi structured interviews

Two interviews were conducted with each teacher participant. One interview was conducted with each of the CPD Leaders. The themes discussed in each of the interviews are outlined below. The first teacher interviews began with general background about career and professional learning from each of the participants and

then moved onto more specific discussions around each of the main questions. The second teacher interview began with a check about some biographical details, and then discussions about the key themes including the professional learning matrix and the Kennedy CPD models.

In the first round of interviews the questions and themes were consistent throughout the interviews. In the second set of interviews all the themes were covered but there was greater variation as individual points arising from the first set of interviews were discussed. Although there was some degree of overlap between the content in the first interviews and the second interviews, the discussions in the second interviews explored the issues in more depth.

Table 1: Interview themes

Interview one themes	Interview two themes
1. Career background	1. Check of core data
2. Recent CPD	2. Motivation for working with students with special needs
3. Planning of professional learning	3. Link between motivation and its influence on professional learning
4. The way school CPD fits in with the teacher's professional learning	4. Discussion of the planning and ownership of CPD matrix
5. Ownership of professional learning	5. Discussion of models of CPD diagram
6. Differences between CPD in special schools and mainstream schools	6. Discussion of CPD that can transform practice
7. Effectiveness of different types of CPD	7. Discussion about the terminology used

Table 2: CPD leader interview themes

CPD leader interview themes
1. School background
2. Most recent school CPD
3. Organisation of CPD at the school
4. Relationship between CPD and other school processes
5. Differences between special school CPD and CPD in mainstream
6. Discussion around models of CPD
7. Discussion around the effectiveness of different models of CPD

3.3.6. Ethical issues

The twin ethic of respect for truth and persons (Bassey, 1992) encompasses the issues of voice, of degrees of engagement with the subject, of participation or observation and of praxis, action that is informed by reflection with the aim to change. Learning can be viewed as a process of change as a result of changing knowledge and skills. Therefore as an education professional engaging in research as part of my learning, my research could have had an impact on and lead to changes not only in my 'lifeworld', as Habermas (1987) describes, but also potentially on the 'lifeworld' of the subject. Change as a result of participation in the research could be positive or negative. As I had chosen to conduct the research, I take responsibility for any impact the findings may have on my life. However the participants, both the teachers and the school had placed me in a position of trust, and therefore it was necessary to conduct the research in an ethical manner. The participants were also dependent on the information given to them. The consent gained was based on the background information given. This had to be accurate and sufficiently succinct to enable an informed decision to be made.

Inviting a person to participate in research by being interviewed has the potential to change that person. There were ethical implications throughout the interview process from invitation to participation. There needed to be clarity in the information given before the teacher chose to participate in the study and when they agreed to sign a consent form. In responding to a question an interviewee may change their view and perception of a situation. This may have a positive or negative impact on their lives. As the participants were adults there was a degree of responsibility in their choice to participate but it was my responsibility to ensure that they were as informed as possible at the start of the process.

It was also important to consider my role as researcher and my relationship with the participants. Bauman (2002) helps us consider the role of the researcher in terms of a passive or active role in the subject under scrutiny, i.e. to what extent the researcher is a 'bystander or actor' (2002, p.201). His description is in the context of moral and ethical choices to remain passive or become active in the face of the adversity of others. The choices, in the context of research, are around the degree of participation in and with the subject. The researcher can remain a passive spectator of activity as in a 'bystander' observing events or can be an 'actor' participating in the events themselves. This is a similar theme to that developed in feminist methodologies (Lather, 1992), and those championed by Freire (1999) in examining the emancipatory influences of research. The counter argument is that the choice to become an actor results in a loss of objectivity, and the role of the researcher is in fact to remain an objective spectator (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2000).

I have already stated that within this interpretive piece of research using a case study approach I accepted my subjectivity and, in using interviews as the data gathering method, I played an active role rather than a passive role in that I was leading a conversation around the research questions and I was a participant in the events. In this study teachers were invited to be interviewed and the interviews were semi structured. The research process had been determined by me so the role of the teachers in the study was more as passive participants while I took the active role. My role was more than one of Bauman's spectators or bystanders because I am a practising teacher with an active engagement in teacher CPD. In considering issues of power I am also a school leader so that factor had the potential to influence the participants' responses. I tried to reduce the impact of my school role by making it clear that I visited the school as a

researcher and whilst I am a school leader this role is less relevant to my research work. I had not met any of the teachers prior to the interviews and although I had met the CPD Leaders at school leadership meetings this was not in a CPD capacity. However there were still unequal power relationships in conducting the interviews. The interview process is not a conversation between equal partners, because the researcher defines and controls the situation. The topic of the interview is introduced by the researcher who critically follows the subject's answers with further lines of questioning (Kvale, 1996, p.6).

There are ethical considerations in the way the data was collected, stored, analysed and presented. The interviewees agreed that their responses would be anonymised, so the interview recordings and notes had to be kept securely, by password protected stored data files. The data also had to be presented in a manner that protects the identity of the teachers and schools participating in the research.

Ethical consent to conduct the study was sought from the Ethics Board of Roehampton University at which I am registered. As a practitioner- researcher there are two ethical discourses within which the research is conducted. As a teacher I worked within the boundaries of professional ethics, which at the time of conducting the interviews, included the ethics of the General Teaching Council for England Code of Conduct and Practice for Registered Teachers (GTCE, 2009) and more recently the Teachers' Standards (DfE, 2012). As a researcher I work within the boundaries of research ethics, for example the Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (BERA, 2011). Mockler (2007) highlights the considerable congruence in these ethical discourses and the need for a holistic approach to teacher research and professional practice in order to think robustly about ethics in the context of practitioner research.

In conducting this study ethically it was necessary to ensure that the participants and the schools as institutions were treated with respect, that views and opinions were handled sensitively and that their participation was voluntary and not coerced in any way.

Ethically it was necessary to consider all the potential scenarios that could take place as a result of the research process. It was possible that in conducting an interview, an interviewee could come to a conclusion about their job that caused them to confront a colleague or, in the extreme, resign from their post as a result of dissatisfaction. This scenario, however unlikely, could constitute harm to the interviewees and to the school and other employees. It was my responsibility to ensure that the schools and the individual participants were aware of the potential issues of participation. Whilst it was impossible to eliminate all risk as the processes of gathering data take place in the 'real' world, the ethical responsibility was to consider risk and make the participants aware of that risk. The following ethical issues were considered in conducting the study, using the ethical consideration highlighted by Punch (2000) as a starting point:

1. Informed consent

Part of the agreement with the school was that the teachers gave their consent freely to participate in the study and were given full information about the nature of their participation and the use of the results prior to volunteering (see Appendix 7).

All the participants were sent transcripts of their interviews. The purpose of this was to ensure that the participants were satisfied that the transcripts reflected an accurate record of their interviews and it also gave the participants an opportunity to make changes if they felt the transcript did not reflect how they felt. None of the teachers

commented on their transcript. The CPD leader from school B contacted me to say that she felt that her transcript was an accurate record of her interview.

2. Privacy

Teachers were able to opt into the study. If they made a comment in an interview that they later chose to withdraw they were able to do so, however none of the participants chose to. They also had the option to withdraw entirely from the study if they later wished to (BERA, 2011). The location of the interviews was carefully chosen in order that the conversation would not be heard by others and so that there would be no interruptions.

3. Confidentiality and anonymity

In conducting semi structured interviews the teachers had the opportunity to expand on their answers, and as professional learning and CPD in schools is a personal issue, concerns of privacy and confidentiality such as dissatisfaction about allocation of funds relating to CPD could arise. The interviews were transcribed and the subjects anonymised to protect the privacy of subject. All data including paper documentation, MP3 voice recording and electronic versions of the data was securely stored in a locked filing cabinet in my work office. Electronic data was password protected; there were two copies - one on my laptop and one on a secure backup hard drive. The data was anonymised at the point of recording to protect the participants' identity. Ethical issues around the relationships between the school, teacher subjects and myself as a researcher in that I was known in each school were another potential concern; and as I am a school leader in another special school in

the county I needed to make it clear that my primary role in this case was that of a researcher (Saunders, 2007).

4. Ownership of data and conclusions

Once published, the study will be in the public domain. Under the data protection act the teachers who are interviewed will have the right to have access to any personal data that is stored in relation to them (BERA, 2011).

3.3.7. Validity and Reliability

In the first section of the chapter I highlighted the fact that Yin's (1984) perspective of reliability seems contradictory. However his suggestion of ensuring an accurate audit trail throughout the research, of maintaining a 'chain of evidence' would seem to be good advice. I have attempted to maintain accurate record keeping, accurate transcription, triangulation of results, and a research journal, in order to support the credibility of the findings. In this way I hope to have demonstrated high levels of criticality and reflection within the methodology.

Stake (2010) highlights the importance of triangulation in strengthening the validity of a piece of research. This is achieved by using multiple sources of data and then establishing links between the data in the analysis. This study was able to make use of this method through triangulation between the two teacher interviews for each teacher, the CPD Leader interview and the school documentation. Additional validity came through the interview process. There was an overlap in the questioning between the first and the second interviews to ensure consistency in responses and an opportunity for participants to read transcripts of their initial interview.

Guba and Lincoln (2005) summarize the key issue of validity in social research in the following question:

How do we know when we have specific social enquiries that are faithful enough to some human construction that we may feel safe in acting on them, or, more important, that members of the community in which the research is constructed may act on them (Guba and Lincoln, 2005, p.206)?

In framing this question Guba and Lincoln describe validity as authenticity, as a hallmark of constructivist enquiry. They go on to discuss separate ideas of authenticity and subjectivity from concerns of objectivity which they describe as a ‘chimera, a mythological creature that never existed’. Bridges (2003) in his book *‘Fiction written under oath’* argues a similar point, that each piece of research is another ‘fiction’ as he describes it. He argues that research is not an objective activity and that engaging in research is like creating a new piece of fiction. Bridge’s perspective is valid in terms of the subjectivity of this type of research; however, the term fiction implies that the work has been created from the author’s imagination. In this piece of research, like other social researchers using a case study approach, real data has been used to build case studies and an attempt made to triangulate that data to ensure a degree of rigour and authenticity (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). Every effort has been made to ensure that it is methodologically valid but an overall judgment of validity will be presented in the final discussion.

There is debate about the use of the term reliability (Bloomberg and Volpe, 2008) with arguments suggesting that it should not be applied to social research because of its positivist focus on replicability. Yin (1984) suggests that the purpose of reliability is to

minimize errors and biases, with the intention that the case studies, if conducted under the same condition by another researcher, would generate the same results. This would seem to be a contradiction in terms of social research in using a case study approach. The data and findings are specific to the context in which they were created and there are layers of interpretation and representation in the analysis and findings. Alternative terms such as trustworthiness, credibility and dependability are more helpful in that they imply a degree of rigour where the raw data matches the explanation and findings of the study whilst avoiding issues of replicability. In fact one of the strengths of case studies is the specificity, uniqueness and detail that they bring to a particular issue. One of the key issues in being able to demonstrate the credibility of the research is in the summarizing of each case study and in the examination of the interview transcripts. Bauman (2005) suggests there is no such thing as a ‘non-committal or neutral sociology’. The implication of his perspective on this research is that it is necessary as a researcher to explain my own perspective and opinions in relation to the question of the planning and ownership of professional learning as well as demonstrating that bias has been avoided in all the processes of the methodology, from the selection of the teachers, to the framing of the questions and to the analysis of the findings.

3.4. Chapter Summary

In this chapter the case has been made for using a research design within the interpretive tradition to examine the question of the extent to which a group of teachers working in two special schools planned and owned their professional learning. The philosophical ‘worldview’ is a constructivist one. The data is qualitative in nature, collected by conducting interviews with eight teachers (four in each special school), with the CPD

Leaders and by gathering documentary evidence from the schools. Case studies are used to organise and compare the experiences of teachers' in the planning and ownership of professional learning.

New knowledge production is through the examination and interpretation of data in the context of specific research questions. The knowledge claims are limited to the localised boundaries of the study. Situating the study in an interpretive tradition means that claims can be specific to the particular context rather than generalised, and any new knowledge that is created is validated by the context and the processes that have taken place (Bridges, 2003). The discussion included a consideration of the ethical implications of carrying out the research and limitations in using subjective research methods and qualitative data. The next chapter presents and critically evaluates the process of analysis.

Chapter 4: Analysis

4.1. Introduction

Chapter 3 presented a critical discussion of the research approach and methods in relation to the research questions. This chapter presents a critical review of the process of data analysis, demonstrates how the themes were developed through the analysis process and presents a summary of the emergent themes. The data analysis was primarily an inductive process, which began during the data collection, through the analysis of raw data and moved onto the development of models to represent the findings. The analysis was also an interpretive process that involved multiple readings and interpretations of the raw data (Thomas, 2003).

The analysis of the data was a dynamic process in two parts. The first part was the initial analysis during the collection and collation of the raw data. The second part was the coding and detailed analysis of data using Nvivo 9. During the data collection and collation the analysis was part of a linear process that began with the first round of interviews, and proceeded through the second round of interviews. The second part of the analysis, using Nvivo 9, was a more complex process that involved movement backwards and forwards through the stages of open, axial and theoretical coding. Both these points are explored in more detail later in this chapter. The next section examines the analysis that formed part of the collection and collation of the data.

4.2. Collection, collation and initial analysis of data

4.2.1. Initial post interview analysis

The initial round of interviews was conducted in a single visit to each school. The interviews were then sent for transcription, because as a full time teacher, I did not have time to transcribe all the interviews myself. The first point of analysis was listening to the audio recordings of the interviews, reading through the transcripts and making notes. The notes included case study memos about each school, each teacher and also a summary of the responses to each of the interview themes. The notes were used to develop questions to prompt discussions in the second interviews. This initial analysis provided an overview of the responses and the developing lines of enquiry. The second point of analysis was after the second round of interviews. The initial notes on each teacher and each school were added to and the responses to the planning and the ownership matrix summarised. The responses to the matrix are discussed in chapter 5 and pen portraits of teacher can be found in Appendix 5.

This initial analysis of data was useful in a number of ways. Firstly it supported the development of lines of questioning in the second interviews. It also provided an overview of the data and a platform for beginning the process of coding the data. It provided greater insight into the identity of the teachers being interviewed and the process of listening, reading and re-reading the transcripts began to provide a familiarity with the data that was invaluable in the second part of analysis, coding using the computer software Nvivo 9.

4.2.2. Choice of transcription method

There are a number of methods of transcription. The choice of method for this research was dependent on the purpose of transcribing the interviews as well as the underlying methodology of the research (Lapadat, 2000). The purpose of transcription in this study was to create an orthographic record of a spoken conversation that would be used to analyse the content of the conversation. The requirement in this case was a record of the conversations that was accurate at a word level and also that recorded the general flow of the conversation. The transcriptions indicated turn taking in the conversation and punctuation followed the rules of grammar rather than indicating, for example, where intonation rises and falls or where a pause has taken place. A student with experience of transcribing was paid to carry out the transcription.

In any research there are layers of interpretation added to the raw data. The raw data in this case is the audio recordings of the interviews. From an interpretive perspective the transcripts are a representation of the interviews and transcription adds an additional layer of interpretation to the process but is a valuable analytic tool. The additional layer of interpretation comes from the transcriber. In this case the transcriber was asked to provide an accurate record of the conversations without recording pauses or intonation. By transcribing an accurate record of the words spoken there was less subjectivity on the part of the transcriber. The choice to omit intonation and pauses however means that some of the meaning may have been sacrificed in the transcription. However, I had already read and listened to the interviews at the same time which addressed this issue.

4.2.3. Other sources of evidence

The documentation from both schools included school policies relating to CPD and CPD planning, performance management policies, the school website, the school improvement plan and the most recent Ofsted report. These policies provided information about the ways in which CPD was organised at the schools and provided some sense of the CPD culture at work in the school. However, they did not provide evidence about the individual professional learning experiences and the planning and ownership of the professional learning by the teachers interviewed. In building the case studies this data was therefore particularly useful in relation to the third research question about how the school CPD programme supported the professional learning of the teachers. However, the documentation was also relevant to the first two questions through the omission of specific detail about provision for individual teacher professional learning and also how school improvement planning influences CPD planning.

The recent policy literature about CPD provided valuable background data to the study, particularly with reference to research about teachers' perceptions of professional learning and CPD and advice to schools about CPD. These documents included publications such as performance management guidance (DfES, 2006), TDA CPD advice (TDA, 2007b) and Ofsted's *Good Professional Development in Schools* (Ofsted, 2010). This element of the literature was relevant to the case studies in providing additional contextual background.

4.3. Process of coding – using Nvivo 9

Coding was used to carry out a thematic analysis of the interview transcripts; its purpose was to get into the data, to develop an in-depth interpretation of the data. The use of thematic analysis provided a coherent means of responding to the research questions, to draw out themes and then illustrate them through examples in the case studies. Guest et al. (2012) distinguish between thematic analyses that are content driven rather than hypothesis driven. Content driven analysis begins with the data, even though a-priori coding may come in at a later stage. Hypothesis driven coding uses predetermined analytical groups to examine the data. This research asked four questions, which were then used to create the themes for the interviews during the data collection. The second interview also used the quadrant model and the Framework of CPD models (Kennedy, 2005) to facilitate the discussions (as discussed in Chapter 3). All of these could be described as predetermined analytical groups. A significant point in the process of analysis is when the questions and the models are used to support the analysis of the data. In this case the a-priori coding using the analytical groups was carried out after a period of 'in-vivo' coding that just looked at the raw data without any specific search terms. Placing a-priori coding second was a deliberate choice, in order to have a less structured reading of the data before examining the data using the main terms.

In this study the thematic analysis began with the data after the interviews had been conducted and the documentation had been gathered. The analysis progressed into the first round of coding in Nvivo 9, which developed codes directly from the interview transcripts and documentation. Applied thematic analysis supports a flexible approach

that incorporates a range of analytical methods in the process. It allows both qualitative and quantitative exploration of textual data, such as word counting and analysis.

The process of coding was a developmental process in that it was my first opportunity to explore the use of Nvivo 9 and practice coding data. The software Nvivo 9 was chosen and used to manage the data and its analysis because of its flexibility, ease of use and levels of support for users new to the package. Nvivo 9 allows the user to import and analyse interview transcripts and documents in multiple formats such as pdf, Excel and Word documents. Its coding and analysis options give the user considerable flexibility in manipulating large amounts of data. The benefits in using Nvivo 9 were that all the data could be managed within one programme, including keeping memos on the progress of the analysis. The main challenge with using the software, having not used it before, was to become an adept and skilled user of the package in a relatively short space of time. As Miles and Huberman (1994) state, one of the factors that determine the quality of data analysis is the competence with which it is carried out.

Throughout the coding and analysis process it was important to keep in mind that the software is a tool to facilitate the analysis of the data, and that the researcher, not the software, controls the direction of the process. Bazeley (2007) emphasises this fact and states that it does not replace a researcher knowing his or her data. The programme offers a suite of analysis options, including a range of query options that can be customised to the needs of the particular piece of research. However, it was important that the capabilities of the software did not drive the process of analysis.

Once the second round of interviews had been transcribed, including the CPD Leader interviews, all the transcripts were formatted and imported into Nvivo 9. All other data

provided by the school relating to professional learning and CPD was also imported into Nvivo 9. In Nvivo 9 the transcripts of the interviews were organised as pairs of interviews for each teacher and then as case studies. The process of analysis treated the data as case studies during each stage of the coding and in the discussion of the findings in the next chapter case studies are used to illustrate the findings. The notes created during the initial process of analysis were also imported into Nvivo 9 to provide an additional point of reference both during the coding process and in the creation of case studies. Short pen portraits of each school can be found in chapter 1 and pen portraits of each teacher can be found in Appendix 6. The process of examining the data was based on the qualitative analysis techniques of free, axial and theoretical coding.

Coding enabled the creation of natural units of meaning from the interviews.

For example, part of the following portion of text from the first interview with teacher 1 was coded as, ‘active choice in planning professional learning’. The description for the code came from the text itself:

T1: And because of that circumstances though, that was one of the things that sort of triggered me to think “well, you know, maybe I should look for somewhere else, try something else.” So at that point I did, and I pushed hard to get the Severe Learning Difficulties (SLD) job and you know several choices to moving to here and a bit like at school x I suppose I’ve got my feet under the desk here and feel quite comfortable, keep things under my own control to a certain extent and probably that suits me. So it’s an active choice I suppose to stay in my comfort zone.

These units of meaning (coded portions of text) were then classified and categorised in order to create an interpretation (Boyatzis, 1998). The creation of an interpretation

comes through development of patterns of coherence, i.e. themes in the text.

Cohen Manion and Morrison (2002) describe this interpretive process of analysis as:

A reflexive, reactive interaction between the researcher and the decontextualized data that are already interpretations of a social encounter. The great tension in data analysis is between maintaining a sense of holism of the interview and the tendency for analysis to atomise and fragment the data.

(Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2002, p. 283)

Fragmentation was necessary in order to make sense of the large volume of transcript data, but a process of reconstruction was also necessary to anonymise the identity of the individual participants and to maintain a meaningful sense of direction in the research to build the case studies.

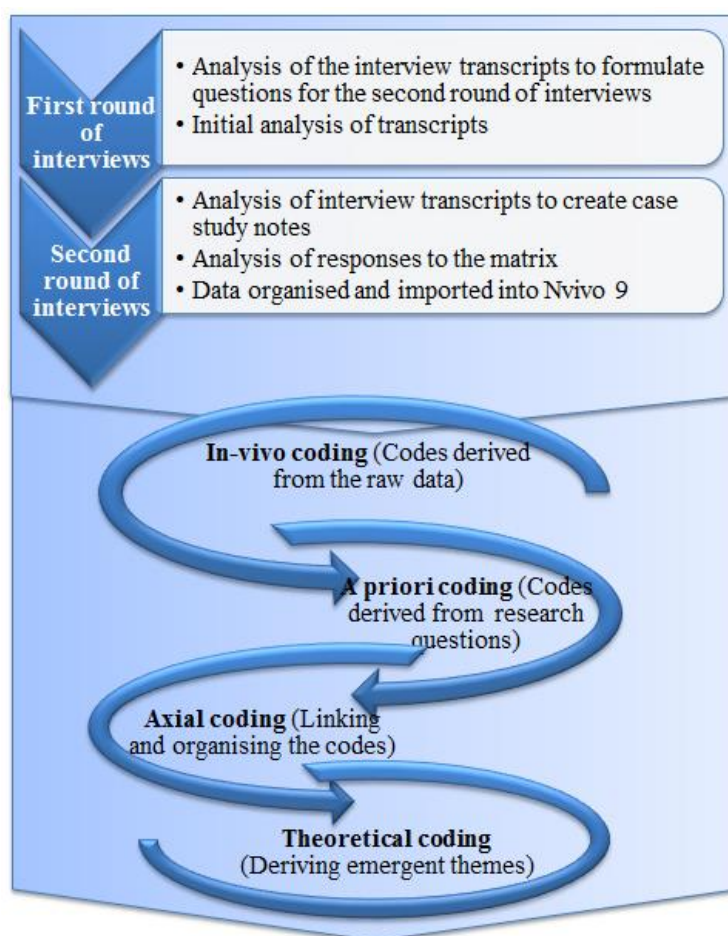


Diagram 5:
The Process of
Analysis

Diagram 5 above demonstrates the practical experience of this coding process.

The process of analysis, deconstruction and reconstruction was not a linear process.

Instead it was a process of moving backwards and forwards through the interviews.

For example, there was an initial deconstruction to begin to codify the interview transcripts but then a rereading of the transcripts to maintain an holistic overview before moving onto the next stage of analysis. The process was organic in that there were specific stages within the process, for example initial open coding which then moved into forming and ordering the coded text into groups and then into a more theoretical stage of coding. At each stage there were choices about the direction the analysis would take. As this was a complex process involving multiple stages over a period of months, an essential feature was the use of memos and journals to record what the steps and choices were and the reasoning behind them. At each point in the process of repeated analysis and synthesis, articulated steps and choices were part of the interpretation (Stake, 2010). The first stage of the process was free coding.

Free coding

The text from the interview transcripts and documentation was initially coded using ‘in-vivo’ coding (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This involves deriving the code for the portion of text that has been highlighted from the text itself. The code is a description or name identifying the section of text. All the interview transcripts were read and any text of interest was highlighted and given a description to identify it at a later date. The rationale for beginning with this type of free coding was to develop a detailed overview of all the transcripts and to code the text before the prescription of focusing specifically on each of the research issues. The biographical details were also coded for each of the

participants. This biographical detail and the notes made during the interview process were used in the development of case studies in the later stages of the analysis.

In order to illustrate the practical process of coding at each stage, two examples of the coding sections in transcripts from two of the teachers are presented below. One related to the planning of professional learning and one related to the barriers faced by teachers in pursuing their professional learning. The quotations from the transcripts are:

I'm not planning any learning at the moment. I mean it's not to say I wouldn't do if I suddenly thought to myself "you know what, I've had enough of this and now know what I want to do next" but I don't know what I want to do next.

Teacher 1, case study A Interview 1

Erm, courses, as I said before that all boils down to money really. Um, if they're free and that, but I think if you, if you wanted to visit another school and showed how it was going to benefit and that then you could.

Teacher 7, case study B Interview 2

During the initial process of in-vivo coding where the text was coded to identify it as relevant, the text from Teacher 1 was coded as '*not planning professional learning*' and the text from Teacher 7 was coded as '*influence of budget on the planning of professional learning*'.

The next step was a-priori coding, another form of free coding. A lexicon (Appendix 4) was developed from terms that were taken from the research questions, literature and background to the research. The words in the lexicon were used to identify codes

within the transcripts (Bazeley, 2007). Nvivo 9 does this by searching for references to particular words within any selected data. It presents all the references which can then be coded if they are deemed relevant. For example, one of the codes that was identified was '*not planning of professional learning*'. All the nodes that related to planning were grouped under this heading. This included the coded text from Teacher 1 shown above. This node was included as a separate node along with other nodes relating to planning. Another of the codes identified was '*barriers to professional learning*'. The quotation from Teacher 7, above, was included as a section of coded text within this node, along with 22 other sections of coded text.

Both of these forms of coding are types of free coding where nodes are generated without any particular structure or order. They are also content based coding (Guest et al., 2012). There is a theoretical distinction between in-vivo and a-priori coding but practically it is a more subtle difference based more on the intention of the researcher. The possibility arises that if the researcher's mind is already saturated with the literature, research questions and methodology, then there is likely to be a subconscious a-priori type of coding taking place. In a-priori coding the researcher deliberately uses the terms from the thesis as the basis for coding. Although in-vivo coding tends to be content focused it is already being filtered through the accumulated knowledge of the researcher.

The purpose of using both types of free coding is to read the data in different ways. With a-priori coding the focus is to look specifically through the data for terms to code using pre-selected terms while with in-vivo coding the purpose is to use the text to determine the coding. The outcome of both processes is that one large set of codes was created from the two types of coding, in-vivo coding being less prescriptive and a-priori

being more prescriptive. These were two different but overlapping sets of codes that needed to be organised and refined. This was achieved firstly by aggregating multiple references to the same terms within the same node and then by moving on to the process of axial coding.

During this stage Nvivo 9 was also used to explore the data in other ways to support the coding process. Its 'query' options were used to carry out text searches to look for the frequency location of key words within the transcripts in order to discover patterns in the interviews. Multiple text searches were carried out for each term. However, whilst this was of general interest, the results did not generate findings that were of significant interest or that could be used to support the thematic analysis. This may have been due to the relatively small sample size and number of interviews being analysed.

Axial coding

The second part of the coding was axial coding where the Nvivo 9 nodes were organised into groups of branched hierarchical trees. Kennedy's (2005) framework of models of types of CPD was used to create the first code tree. Once this code tree was established, further code trees were created under the headings of planning, ownership and further issues. The process involved grouping the codes together and then organising them as a hierarchical tree. Nvivo 9 describes this as creating parent and child nodes. The purpose for this was to begin to relate the free coding back to the research questions. There were several outcomes of this process. Firstly there were nodes that fitted around three of the main themes, planning, ownership and school support for professional learning. A group of codes emerged that were all associated with different models of CPD particularly the training models of CPD. There were very

few codes associated with the transformational potential of CPD as a discrete theme. Kennedy includes transformative models of CPD within her framework of CPD models so this area was included in the code tree relating to models of CPD. A number of groups of codes emerged that did not fit neatly into one of the themes and seemed instead to run across the themes. These became part of a code tree called further issues. There were four of these areas: one was barriers to professional learning, the second involved issues of language and terminology used during the research and used by the teachers participating in the data collection. The third included a number of codes around special schools, for example, one of the areas for discussion during the interviews was whether the teachers felt that there were any differences between special school and mainstream school CPD. This was relevant in examining the impact of the special school context on school CPD programmes. The final area linked to teacher attitudes. Whilst there were no specific questions around professional learning and teacher attitudes as this lay outside the scope of this study, there were a number of comments made during the interviews that related clearly to professional learning and teacher attitudes.

During the axial coding stage, code trees went through a number of stages of refinement (see Appendix 6 for two examples of the full coding hierarchies). The section of text, shown previously, from Teacher 1 was finally included within the node on the influences on the planning of professional learning, as a sub node entitled ‘influence of career stage’. It was included with 14 other references from 8 sources (eight of the interviews). The section of text from Teacher 7 was finally included within the node ‘further issues’ as a sub node on the ‘barriers to professional learning’. It was included with 22 other references from 9 sources.

Theoretical coding

Following on from axial coding, theoretical coding was used to identify patterns in the coded text. Theoretical coding identified the developing themes in relation to the patterns emerging in axial coding. The analytical process used in the theoretical coding was the modelling of nodes within Nvivo 9 using the node tree structures with reference to the memos and notes recorded already. The axial coding provided a structure that helped organise the code into meaningful groups linked to the main research areas, but the modelling of these groups during the theoretical coding highlighted the complexity of the interactions between the different elements of each code tree. This made it challenging to reduce the code trees and subsequent models down to a more simple set of themes.

Having established the key themes a final round of code organisation was necessary. The code trees were restructured into two case studies in order to create the case study summaries. Whilst the case studies were not intended to be comparative the final organisation of the codes emphasised the individual features and nuances of each case study. This process supported the reconstruction of the data as two holistic case studies after the deconstruction during the initial stages of the analysis (Thomas, 2012).

4.4. Organisation of the themes emerging from the data

It was a challenge to create a coherent range of themes because the issues were complex (Opfer and Pedder, 2011). The outcome of this process was the emergence of a number

of themes and also a subset of supplementary themes that ran through all the main questions. The diagram below illustrates the way the themes were organised.

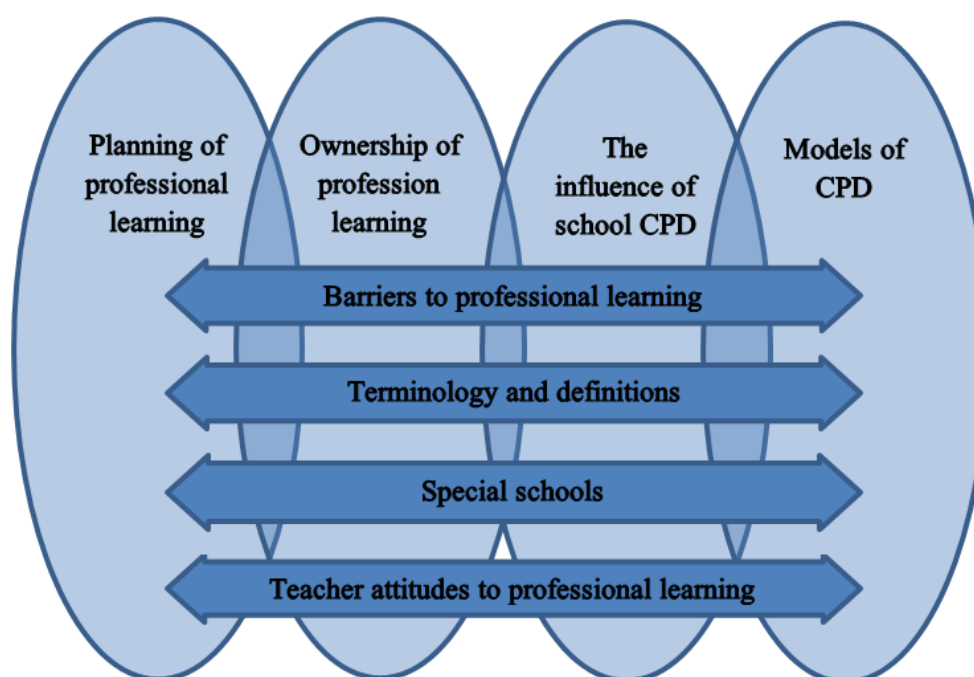


Diagram 6: The organisation of the main themes

Whilst some of the themes reflect the research questions, diagram 6 illustrates aspects of the complex interactions between these themes. The main themes were grouped around each of the main issues of planning, ownership and the school CPD support for professional learning. All the teachers were able to respond to these main questions. The fourth set of themes focused on the models of CPD. The final research question concerned the transformative impact of different models of CPD. It became clear in the process of modelling the axial coding, that this question was part of a discussion about models of CPD and a wider critique of teacher perceptions of training and professional development using Kennedy's Framework of CPD models (2005).

4.5. Chapter Summary

The analysis of the data took place in two stages. During the collection and collation of the data the initial analysis supported the initial building of the case studies and the development of early lines of enquiry. In the second stage of the analysis, the development of the thematic analysis of the data was carried out using computer assisted qualitative data analysis in the form of the software Nvivo 9. The main issue was the complexity of the data that emerged through the process of free, axial and theoretical coding. This resulted in the development of themes that were related to each of the main questions and also cross themes that could be found in each of the questions. The issues of terminology, special schools, barriers to professional learning and the influence of the special school context related to each of the main research questions. The theme around models of CPD took on increasing significance as different models of CPD impacted on the ownership of teacher professional learning and the question of the transformative impact of school CPD became part of the examination of the different models of CPD. Diagram 6 illustrates the themes that run across the main issues. These themes form the basis for a discussion of the findings in chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Discussion of the Findings

5.1. Introduction

Chapter 4 presented and discussed the process of data collection and analysis, from the deconstruction of the data to the reconstruction and identification of the key themes.

This chapter presents a discussion of the data, how it was used to build two case studies of teachers' professional development in a special school context and the findings that were drawn from those case studies. The two special schools were selected as case studies providing the context to examine professional development, specifically asking the four research questions raised in Chapter 1 about the planning and ownership of professional learning by teachers working in those schools:

1. To what extent do teachers plan their professional learning?
2. Do teachers take ownership of their professional learning?
3. How do the CPD processes and the provision in a school support the individual professional learning of the teacher?
4. Is there any evidence that a transformative focus on CPD provision in a school is more supportive of the professional learning of the individual teacher?

Opfer and Pedder's (2011) argument, highlighted in Chapter 1, is that research into CPD should reflect the complexities of the issues involved in researching professional learning rather than presenting a one dimensional focus on single issues. This focus on the complexity of the issues adds to the challenge of presenting a succinct interpretation of qualitative data in that the data becomes more complex, not less, with each reading

(Stake, 2010). The interwoven strands of qualitative data can be likened to the threads on the back of a tapestry, untidy, knotted and containing many loose ends. To address this issue, use of a case study approach, with its focus on the specific experiences of teachers contextualised within two special schools, drawing on three different strands of data, provides the opportunity to look for patterns and themes at the same time as revealing the complexities of the knots and loose ends. As discussed in Chapter 3, the case studies are exploratory and theory building in nature (Thomas, 2012), providing the evidence used to probe the research questions. The purpose of this chapter is to present the data as two case studies demonstrating the boundaries, complexity and interplay of factors within each case study and to discuss the findings and the data that led to those findings in order to address the research questions.

The chapter is divided into two sections. The first part discusses the data in the light of the process of analysis, following Stake's (2010) emphasis on the importance of qualitative analysis in demonstrating the process of interpreting data as well as the specific data used to arrive at a set of findings. This section demonstrates how the findings emerged from the process of deconstruction and synthesis of the data and how multiple strands of data formed each case study. It also presents a summary of each case study.

The second section of the chapter presents a discussion of the findings and is divided into three sub sections relating to the research questions. The first sub-section examines the support that CPD in the case study schools provides for teacher professional learning. It also addresses the research question relating to the transformative models of CPD offering support for the professional learning of the individual teacher as that research question became intertwined within the CPD provision in each case study

school. The second sub-section examines the planning of professional learning and development and the third looks at the findings relating to the ownership of professional learning.

During the analysis, themes emerged that related specifically to each of the research questions. Themes also emerged that related to more than one research question. As diagram 6 in chapter 4 illustrates, the first cross cutting theme relates to concerns raised during the interviews about potential barriers to professional learning that may restrict or inhibit the planning, ownership or provision of professional learning and development. The second cross cutting theme relates to issues of terminology and definitions, particularly with regard to the use of the key terms professional learning, professional development and CPD. The third cross cutting theme relates to the special schools' context for the research which is examined in relation to the specific CPD on offer at each school. This theme was particularly relevant to each of the research questions because of the specific impact it had on both the content and provision of CPD in each of the case study schools, and because of the new insight it provided into the professional development of teachers working in special schools. It is also an important thread running through the case study summaries. The fourth cross cutting theme developed as it became clear that some of the responses to the planning and ownership of professional learning were influenced by differences in the attitudes of the teachers to a range of professional issues such as career development. These themes are included in each discussion section.

5.2. The data and building of the case studies

Yin, commenting on case study data, observes that:

Properly dealing with case study evidence requires a final but essential practice: you need to present the evidence in your case study with sufficient clarity (e.g. in separate texts, tables and exhibits) to allow readers to judge independently your later interpretation of the data.

(Yin, 2012, Chapter 1, eBook).

Yin's emphasis on the differences between the data and the findings drawn from that data highlights the importance of clearly demonstrating the links between the data and the findings drawn from the case studies in order to justify the rigour and trustworthiness of the methodological approach. Thomas (2012), like Yin, highlights the importance of presenting and critically examining the data and then interpreting that data in order to demonstrate the basis on which the interpretations have been made. This approach has been used in structuring this chapter, i.e. presenting the case studies developed from the data and then using these interpretations to present a discussion of the findings. Thomas (2012) also suggests that a case study retains what he describes as its unity, not from the theoretical tools used to examine it, but from the way it takes shape. This chapter follows Thomas's emphasis on the importance of articulating the process of analysis in order to describe the content and boundaries of the case studies (Thomas, 2012).

Yin (2012) emphasises the need to include multiple strands of data to support the validity of the case study. The first group of interviews provided data related to the experiences of four teachers in each school. Although they were four different teachers

and therefore four different perspectives, it was a single type of data, i.e. teacher interviews. The CPD leader interview was the same type of data as the teacher interviews but it provided data from a different angle, that of a school leader. An important element in building the case studies was the inclusion of data collected through the documentary analysis because it provided an alternative form of data within the case studies that could be compared with the interview data.

The initial questions in each interview were about the teachers' backgrounds. The teachers talked enthusiastically about their professional history and their current context which extended this part of the interview. However, it provided important contextual information about special schools that supported the documentary evidence relating to the school backgrounds. This willingness on the part of the teachers to recount their teaching histories was similar to that described by Goodson (2003). It provided a rich source of data not only about the teachers but also about the schools and their opinions on professional development. It was an area that, after reflection, I came back to in the second interview. The second round of interviews provided an important means of cross checking the initial responses and developing the conversations. Continuing the tapestry analogy, each source of data provided distinctive patches of overlapping evidence within the case study, with threads that represented common and divergent responses that added to the picture as a whole. The case studies build a picture of teachers and their professional learning not in isolation but in the context of the school, examining data from a range of sources thereby ensuring the triangulation of evidence and links from the data to the findings (Stake, 2010).

Diagram 5 in Chapter 4 illustrates the main stages of analysis, beginning with the initial analysis that formed part of the data collection and then the overlapping processes of the

deconstruction and reconstruction of the data during the process of coding which resulted in the development of themes relating to the research questions. Whilst coding provided a nuanced view of the data which enabled the selection of the most salient elements of the data to develop each case study, it was necessary to step back and look at the data as a whole at the end of the analysis (Thomas, 2012). Each group of teachers and the special school in which they worked were viewed as a case study from the start of the data gathering process. The building of the case studies took place towards the end of the analysis when the deconstructed elements of the data were reconstructed to form the two case study summaries provided an holistic view of the data. The benefit of concluding the analysis process with the case study summaries was that it situated the teachers in their specific context, and using contextual evidence providing different pieces of the jigsaw through which explanations of the planning and ownership of teacher professional learning could be advanced.

Greenbank (2003) emphasises that research is not a value neutral process and reflexivity is not just an awareness of the values the researcher brings to the research but a reflection on the impact of those values on the research process and building of the case studies. It is not only social and moral values that I brought to the research process, but as an education professional, I also brought my accumulated professional knowledge and experiences. In the case of professional knowledge it is the knowledge and experience of CPD, particularly special school CPD that were the key elements of professional knowledge relevant to the research. Identifying and returning to boundaries of the case studies was an important element of the reflexive process (Bridges 2003) in ensuring that the case studies remained within the parameters of the research focus. Maintaining a journal that recorded the reflexive process helped retain the case study boundaries. The boundaries of the case studies were determined by the research

questions, the special school context, the selection of interviewees and the methods used to build the case studies.

The challenge in presenting succinct summaries is the danger of brevity which can lead to scepticism on the part of the reader regarding the credibility of the case study (Yin, 2012). There is a need therefore to present sufficient data to ensure that the case studies maintain their credibility in relation to the research questions whilst also maintaining coherence.

Case Study A: A case study of the ownership and planning of professional learning by a group of teachers working in a special school for pupils with severe autism.

Background and organisation

The school in case study A was an all age segregated special school (4 to 19 years) for students with autism and social communication difficulties. It had both day and residential provision for one hundred pupils from reception to year twelve as well as a Further Education department. The school worked through three age related departments; primary, secondary and Further Education. The school had an outreach service that provided training and support on autism to primary and secondary schools in its local area. All the students attending the school had statements of SEN. The most recent Ofsted report (2008) at the time of the data collection judged the school as outstanding in all areas with no significant recommendations. The website reported that it had very strong national and international links with organisations that support children and adults with autism, receiving and providing professional development on a

range of issues related to autism. Its mission statement on the website referred to ‘*a centre of excellence for learners with autism*’.

School organisation

The leadership team consisted of a Headteacher, Deputy Headteacher and leaders of the three main departments. All teachers were expected to have additional responsibility which mainly involved being subject co-ordinators. There were 22 teachers, with experience ranging from three years teaching to more than 25 years of teaching experience. Four teachers, with different lengths of service, were interviewed for the case study. There was one male and three female teachers, each with different areas of responsibility within the school.

CPD provision

There was evidence from the CPD Leader, in the CPD policy and from Ofsted that a significant feature of the professional development provision for staff at the school was the focus on training in autism. Ofsted identified that, ‘INSET days are used extremely well to ensure that all staff receive regular training about how to manage the learning of pupils with autism.’ The CPD policy stated that “Autistic specific courses have a high priority and training in strategies like the Picture Exchange Communication System (PECS), social stories, and a programme called the ‘Treatment and Education of Autistic and related Communication handicapped Children’ which uses the acronym TEACCH (2003) are offered on an annual rolling programme”. When this is considered with the topics covered by the annual CPD planning, a picture emerges in this case study of professional development that is focused specifically on meeting the

special educational needs of children with autism through a range of very specific programmes, with teachers being trained to use this set of specific teaching / support strategies.

Teachers received comprehensive training in the specialism of autism and in the programmes and strategies used by the staff to support the pupils attending the school when they joined the school. Updates were then provided every year, with staff receiving refresher courses or training. For example, all teachers who joined the school were trained to use the TEACCH programme. The training is provided by accredited trainers from the TEACCH centre in the United Kingdom or the United States.

One of the teachers, Teacher 4, felt some of the training linked to the school improvement plan was not relevant to her role, however this view was not raised by the other teachers interviewed as part of case study A. Teacher 1 felt that the provision of professional development was becoming more prescriptive. This issue of the provision, in a special school context, of a very specific and highly regulated programme of professional development raised questions about the impact of such a context on the individual planning of professional learning by teachers who had been at the school for some time.

The professional development plan, which included the autism specific training, was drawn up in line with the school improvement plan. At the time of the interviews in 2010 these plans were running from 2008-2010. The focus in 2010 when the interviews took place was on the social and emotional wellbeing and development of the pupils. Courses relevant to staff were brought to their attention and staff were encouraged to take up these opportunities. Specific courses on Autism were given highest priority.

Cascading of information learnt on courses was encouraged within departments and at staff meetings. Staff evaluated the courses they had completed and the deputy head, as CPD Leader, debriefed all staff that attended courses and discussed issues raised at senior team meetings.

The professional development policy showed that clear structured provision of whole school training was linked primarily to the school development issues but aspired to meet individual needs. This was also evident in the CPD Leader interview and individual teacher interviews with all four teachers describing positive relationships with the CPD Leader and where CPD options were part of a dialogue. These processes appeared to work well for Teachers 2, 3 and 4.

Organisation of professional development

CPD and performance management policies, the CPD Leader interview and comments made in response to questions in teacher interviews showed that there was systematic organisation of CPD linked to performance management and school improvement. Each teacher had a professional development plan as part of his/her performance management. Once performance management objectives had been identified, professional development needs were identified. When all performance management had been completed the teachers' professional development needs were collated and summarised. This had been the school policy since 2007 with the implementation of the 2007 performance management regulations (DfES, 2006).

The CPD Leader was very enthusiastic about professional learning and development. The data from her interview transcript provided a picture of the process of individual

professional development planning similar to that described by the teachers interviewed. The Headteacher and CPD Leader carried out all the performance management interviews between themselves, with the CPD Leader collating and coordinating the individual CPD planning in line with the existing whole school CPD plans and school improvement plans. The CPD Leader in School A described the process:

At the beginning of each year every teacher will be seen for a performance management interview and at that interview we'll set targets, one will be in line with the school improvement plan, so they look at the school improvement plan and think about what area their developing practice would fit in to that. Another area they're looking at is pupil attainment and the third area is related to their subject leader role because every teacher has a subject leadership role across the school. And then at that interview we would look at what their professional development needs are.

CPD Leader, case study A

The data from all the interviews in case study A indicated that the relationships between teachers and school leadership, particularly the CPD Leader, were very positive. Conversations about professional development opportunities were conducted with the CPD Leader. She was able to describe in detail what several staff were focusing their professional development on, particularly in terms of their subject leadership role. For example she described Teacher 3:

Teacher 3 who you spoke to earlier, she says "I want to learn more about this" and "I want to learn..." she's, you know, getting involved in lots of things and that's really exciting for me when you get somebody who comes and tells you what they want to learn rather than waiting to be told.

CPD Leader, case study A

Two teachers interviewed also spoke about the role the CPD Leader had in suggesting professional development opportunities that might be available. The evidence pointed towards a CPD Leader who wanted to involve the teachers in the process of identifying their professional development and learning which would seem to aspire to a staff culture with a more democratic /collegial form of professionalism (Sachs, 2003).

The performance management policy and the staff development policy both stated that professional development for each teacher would be identified during the performance management interview. The policy also agreed with the system of organisation of performance management described by the CPD Leader in her interview. However, there were contradictions in the types of opportunities being planned for. The CPD Leader and Teacher 4 questioned the value of traditional training and courses in promoting professional learning and suggested that professional development that enabled teachers to work together over longer periods of time were more effective. However, the staff development policy and the CPD plan included models of CPD that were mainly training and courses. For example it stated that, “Courses relevant to staff are brought to their attention and staff are encouraged to take up these opportunities. Courses are also identified in Performance Management interviews.” The contradiction here is in the use of the term ‘courses’. There appeared to be disparity between the professional development that the CPD Leader wanted to promote and the description in the staff development policy of the sorts of professional development that staff were able to plan for. Teachers 1 to 3 also referred in their interviews to courses and training when discussing the planning of professional learning.

Models of CPD

The CPD Leader identified that the dominant models of CPD used within the school were the transmissive and transitional models from the Kennedy framework (2005). She indicated a desire to move towards the use of more transformative models of CPD but recognised that would require a considerable cultural shift in CPD in the school:

And I do think it's quite a, a culture change for special schools because we've kind of had the traditional, you know, we go and we train and we come back and we try and we do it and how much follow up there is to that or reflection on that perhaps.

CPD Leader, case study A

Teacher 1 described a preference for acquiring new information through a training model of CPD as well as the opportunity to assimilate new knowledge by himself. He felt that there was an open professional learning culture but CPD was more transmissive where people get transformed gradually through professional interaction:

That's really interesting, actually, so, so err, the kind of the implicit, you've got an implicit model of transformation just because of the nature of the school but the explicit models of training of professional learning are really around training.

Teacher 1, case study A

Teacher 2 recognised aspects of all the models of CPD taking place at school A but personally benefited most from learning from supportive colleagues. All the teachers at school A recognised that the dominant model of CPD in use was the training model but their preferences were for other models such as peer support models – drawing on the

expertise of colleagues. In her interview the CPD Leader clearly understood the need for ownership of professional learning but felt that a culture change was needed in order to encourage staff to take ownership of their professional learning rather than just be recipients of CPD. She also identified that some of the models of CPD required more ownership than others, particularly models that tended towards the transitional and transformative end of the framework of models of CPD. However she recognised that this required more trust by the school's leadership. She said:

That's the thing, here (referring to transmissive models of CPD) you have to be very much in control as a leadership team.... very much involved you know, you set, you set the agenda don't you, you identify the training needs and you deliver it, it's quite un-risky really whereas down here (referring to transformative models of CPD) you have to trust that people will be taking ownership of their learning, that they're going to be motivated to improve their practice through that learning, that it's exciting.

CPD Leader, case study A

Case study A was a special school with a strong culture of professional development. The data points towards a school where professional learning is supported and encouraged and one in which there were many CPD opportunities. As a special school it has significant differences compared to most mainstream schools, including the age range of pupils attending the school and the specificity of the SEN of the pupils i.e. autism. The impact of the wide age range of pupils on CPD was not as significant as the specificity of the needs of the pupils. The CPD focus for each group of teachers was adjusted depending on whether the teachers taught in the primary, secondary or further education departments. The specificity of the SEN of the pupils had a much greater influence on the CPD provided by the school, particularly in the focus on the training of

staff in the use of a narrow range of autistic support strategies such as the TEACCH course.

There was evidence within the case study that CPD was linked closely to other school systems, particularly performance management and school improvement. The dominant model of CPD based on the Kennedy framework was a training model with other transmissive and transitional models in use to some extent as evidenced in the documentation and responses during the interviews. There was evidence in the CPD Leader's interview that she felt that use of transitional and transformative models of CPD were more effective but there was little evidence from school policies of their use at the time.

Case Study B: A case study of the ownership and planning of professional learning by a group of teachers working in a special school for pupils with moderate learning difficulties

Background and organisation

School B catered for 165 students from 11 to 18 with moderate learning difficulties in an inner London Borough. A significant proportion of the students were identified as having Autistic Spectrum Disorder (ASD), Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Behavioural Emotional and Social Difficulties (BESD) and Speech, Language and Communication Difficulties (SLCN) as well as having learning difficulties. The school hosted an advisory service that provided an outreach service to all primary and secondary schools in the Borough for students with SLCN. One of the teachers interviewed worked within the advisory service. All the students attending the school

had a statement of SEN. The school had an autistic resource base for students who were both on the autistic spectrum and had learning difficulties. The base had three discrete classes where the primary diagnosis was ASD. Teacher 1 worked in the autistic resource base.

School organisation

The school had 25 teachers organised within curriculum and pastoral teams. The leadership team consisted of the Headteacher, Deputy Headteacher, three assistant Headteachers, one of whom was responsible for the Speech, Language and Communication specialism of the school. One of the leadership team was the designated CPD Leader although the Headteacher retained overall responsibility for CPD and many aspects of the planning and delivery of CPD were distributed amongst the wider leadership team.

CPD provision and organisation

It was evident from the teacher interviews, the CPD Leader interview and the documentation provided that the school had a highly structured approach to the management and organisation of both school improvement and professional development. There was a strong focus on what was described as ‘line management’ with annual performance management meetings and half termly line management meetings between teachers and their line-managers. There was a high level of accountability for CPD. Teacher 6 comments reflect the general view of the teachers:

We have quite a strict monitoring cycle because, and you know, it's followed quite rigidly and you know every term you get observed in different aspects of your teaching and I have to also as a middle manager, go and observe other people.

Teacher 6, case study B

There were also forms and logs that were completed as part of the process. There were clear procedures for planning and applying for support for CPD opportunities and then providing feedback if any CPD was undertaken. The CPD planning for each teacher was embedded within the performance management and line management processes. Within this process new professional development needs and activities were discussed. Objectives were intended to reflect aspects of the whole School Development Plan and the personal CPD Plan, and in particular those areas dealing specifically with the curriculum, student progress and student achievement.

The data suggested a school culture that was more managerial than collegial or democratic in its style of professionalism. The impact of this was clear on Teacher 8 who felt there was no scope to address her own learning needs and that systems were so paper based that a lot of time was wasted on form filling. The other teachers interviewed did not make any complaints about the systems for planning professional development and described having some ownership and planning of their professional learning.

The school had a separate CPD plan which linked to the CPD strand on the school improvement plan. The planning ran on a three year cycle with the interviews taking place towards the end of the cycle running from 2007 to 2010. CPD was described by

the CPD Leader as driven by the school improvement planning with suggestions for training also coming from both the leadership team and the staff. The training suggested as examples by the CPD Leader were related to the medical needs of the students such as training in the use of EpiPens for extreme allergic reactions. One significant issue raised by two of the teachers interviewed was that while their personal suggestions were put into the overall plan on the annual update of the CPD planning these suggestions were not necessarily followed up. Three out of four of the teachers reported this as a source of significant frustration.

Within the case study there seemed to be a contradiction between the expectations of the school, reflected in the CPD Leader's comments that teachers plan and own their professional learning, and the restrictions placed on the CPD planning opportunities by the whole school CPD programme and the apparent focus on school improvement. The CPD Leader said that, *"They would be able to pursue whatever they want."* However the CPD policy stated that, *'Where possible individual needs should be matched to those of the institution.'* The latter was the situation described by two of the teachers in only being allowed to participate in CPD activities if they fitted in with school improvement planning or if there was sufficient budget available. Teacher 7 commented that:

Well the barriers are time and cost. I'm not saying that if something really interesting or something came up it would be totally pooh-poohed, but... you have to show exactly where it all fits in.

Teacher 7, case study B

Weekly staff meetings with a development focus were one of the main opportunities for the provision of regular CPD. Staff meetings had a CPD focus which followed a

thematic pattern with the CPD being provided by external or internal trainers. The themes included a safeguarding, SLCN, autism, behaviour management and a curriculum theme. Over the term teachers covered five areas and all of the training fitted into one of those themes. The training had a particular focus on supporting the SEN specialisms of the school.

The highly structured approach to CPD provision was a significant aspect of the school professional learning and development culture. This appeared to have an impact on two of the teachers in different ways. Teachers 7 and 8 in particular found that the systems for identifying CPD needs restricted any development opportunities they wanted to pursue. Teacher 7 felt that it was the budget and the school improvement issues that had a major impact on courses she wanted to pursue being turned down. Teacher 8 was a counterpoint to all the other teachers in her strongly negative opinions about CPD provision and organisation. She held the strongest and most polarised views of all the teachers interviewed in both case studies, providing an outlier compared to the other teachers. She felt that in the context of school she was unable to plan and did not feel that she had any ownership of her professional learning, particularly because of the prescriptive nature of CPD provision that did not provide opportunities for her to pursue her own professional learning. She also commented that the rigidity of having to attend training on topics such as first aid and manual handling on an annual basis did not leave as much time available for other professional development. However she engaged in professional learning by planning her own development, in school in her classroom and outside of school through enrolment on a Masters Degree.

Models of CPD

The CPD Leader was able to provide some evidence of all the CPD models apart from the transformative model, but described the school as having a transformative focus in its approach and provision of CPD. However, the use of the transformative model of CPD was not as evident as she suggested either from the responses in the teacher interviews or in the CPD planning, highlighting a contradiction in the data about the use of different CPD models in the school. She expressed some uncertainty about what constituted transformative models of CPD but suggested that the school was encouraging staff to view CPD as a range of different activities stating that:

What we've tried to do over the last year is very much promote the fact that CPD is personally owned, personally driven and available from a number of sources. And it's not all about courses. And I think that was quite a, a shift in culture and expectation of a number of staff really which was just "well unless I'm going on a course I'm not doing any CPD".

CPD Leader, case study B

The CPD plan also highlighted the aim to offer more peer mentoring, coaching, shadowing, and personal study opportunities to support the professional development of teachers as alternatives to external courses. However, the training model appeared to be a dominant model in the delivery of CPD, particularly with regard to CPD relating to the SEN needs of the pupils. The evidence suggests that there are significant underlying barriers created by the school's SEN specialism that mitigate against the promotion of more transformative models of CPD provision. One such example is the continual provision of basic training to deliver knowledge and skills on areas such as first aid and manual handling.

Case study B illustrates a special school with a strong CPD culture, with considerable professional development taking place and where CPD is linked to other school systems. The SEN focus of the school has a significant influence on CPD provision both in content and delivery. Whilst there was a broader focus for CPD compared to case study A, encompassing a wider range of SEN, the focus of CPD was still on the SEN of the pupils. The age range of the pupils meant that the school had a secondary and post 16 focus to its CPD but that was not different to many mainstream schools. One of the significant issues which will be discussed in the next section is what impact the combination of potentially prescriptive school CPD systems, CPD linked closely to school improvement and the provision of CPD using a training model has on the capacity of teachers to take ownership of their professional learning.

5.3. The case studies as an evidence base for the examination of the research questions

This section follows the same pattern as the case study summaries in that it discusses the findings relating to whole school CPD first before addressing the research questions about the planning and ownership of professional learning.

5.3.1. How do the CPD processes and the provision in the case study schools support the individual professional learning of the teacher?

CPD processes and provision

The case study summaries highlighted that both case study schools had clear CPD policies that identified performance management as the channel that teachers used to plan their professional development needs. In both case studies there were well developed annual CPD programmes for all staff that supported the school development plans. The CPD programmes focused on providing routine training on the skills necessary to support students with SEN as well as updates for teachers on curriculum issues, school improvement issues and national initiatives. The CPD plans described the delivery of training at after school staff development meetings, on INSET days and at twilight sessions. The training was led by internal and external experts and supported the development of the knowledge and skills of all staff.

The key findings about whole school CPD from the case study data were firstly that the provision of CPD was directed towards the SEN of pupils at each special school, focusing on the medical needs of the pupils rather than the curriculum or teaching and learning. Secondly there was an apparent disconnection between whole school provision of CPD and individual teacher professional development and learning needs. Thirdly there was a dominant use of the training model of CPD in the delivery of professional development.

The CPD Leader in case study A clearly identified a CPD focus on the school's specialism in autism. She stated:

I think that one of the biggest things that informs their learning (the teachers) is obviously the autism specialism that we have here so a big emphasis on training and a big upkeep of emphasis on training here is the TEACCH training.

CPD Leader, case study A

Although she identified that the focus needed to be on the learning needs of the students, she described the pupils' autism as an example of a specific barrier to learning. This view was reinforced by the use of the TEACCH programme, with its focus on treatment and education as one of the main strategies to support and teach the pupils. In case study B there were similar programmes to develop the specific knowledge about particular types of SEN for new staff. In both case studies, documentary and interview data demonstrated that training for teachers on the SEN needs of the students was based on a medical model of SEN (Davis & Watson, 2001). The teachers referred in their interviews to areas for development such as lifting and carrying pupils, behaviour management and supporting pupils with specific medical needs, as well as some training about their particular subject area. Whilst most teachers did not comment on

this as a problem, two teachers interviewed, one in each case study, felt that the routine programmes of training relating to medical and care support had a negative impact, reducing the time available to focus on their own professional learning choices. There would be a greater impact on pupil learning if these special school teachers were able to focus on their own professional learning choices, particular those relating to pedagogy, instead of attending routine training on medical and care issues.

The impact on professional development and learning based on the medical model of SEN is that it focuses on the dissemination of professional knowledge about specific types of SEN, their characteristics, identification and support for pupils (Evans, 2002). In the case studies professional development programmes focusing on the medical and care needs of pupils were promoted at the expense of a focus on teaching and learning. Annual CPD planning and interview responses from both case studies suggest that the CPD programmes with a SEN focus would take a significant proportion of the allocated CPD time and budget which would impact on the time and resources available for providing an additional focus on CPD relating to pedagogy. The challenge, in both case studies, is achieving a balance between the school duty of care that includes the wellbeing of the pupils and the need for pupils to learn and achieve. Teaching staff need a certain degree of training to ensure the wellbeing of the pupils and this necessitates an understanding of the pupils SEN. However, they also need to improve their skills and practice as teachers and any time taken for routine training about SEN reduces the time teachers have on developing their pedagogy. In both case study schools there were large numbers of support staff who worked to support the medical and care needs of the pupils. With high numbers of support staff, teachers should have been able to focus on pedagogy and improvements to teaching and learning.

One issue for consideration is whether the CPD focus on the pupils' SEN and training related to pupil medical needs is relevant to teaching and pedagogy. Training on the specific features of a type of SEN would be relevant if there were differences in pedagogical strategies required to teach different types of SEN. However, a number of authors including Lewis and Norwich (2005, 2007), Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) and Lloyd (2008) suggest that there is no fundamental difference between the pedagogies required to teach mainstream children and those pedagogies for children with any type of SEN. Lewis and Norwich (2008) suggest that, rather than different pedagogies needed to teach different groups, there is a continuum of pedagogic strategies based on individual differences. If this is the case then the main focus for teachers' CPD, in both case studies, should be on professional development about pedagogy rather than the SEN of the pupils.

Another issue is that the medical model of SEN, with its discrete knowledge and reliance on expert delivery, lends itself to more transmissive models of delivery through a training model of CPD (Davis & Watson, 2001). In both case studies some teachers felt that an unintended consequence of this routine training was a reduction in the amount of time available for individual planned professional development. The issue was not necessarily the model of delivery i.e. training but the time taken up by the routine training. What appeared to be missing was the personalisation required to target those staff that specifically needed training about SEN issues rather than the requirement of this regular training for all staff. The consequence of this lack of personalisation is teacher frustration at having to attend training that seemed unnecessary and a reduction in time which could have been focused on developing their classroom practice.

A main difference between the case study schools was the culture that appeared to underpin the organisation and provision of CPD, with the school in case study A having a more collegial culture than the school in case study B. In both case study schools the responses of the teachers and the CPD Leaders provided consistent information about the content and organisation of CPD. In case study A performance management discussions were seen as a dialogue with a focus on the individual teacher needs, as well as student progress and school improvement priorities. In case study B performance management and CPD were organised as a highly structured process with a focus on targets and accountability. Terms such as line management, targets and monitoring are the language of managerial professionalism with a focus on outcomes and accountability (Kennedy, 2007). Whilst the professional learning needs of the teacher were considered, it is clear that the institutional needs were dominant (Pedder and Opfer, 2010). There were conflicting views from the teachers interviewed about the extent to which the schools' CPD processes and programmes supported professional learning, with Teacher 8 stating that the school CPD processes and systems were unsupportive of teacher professional learning needs and that a lot of school CPD experienced was actually time given to reviewing policies and updating paperwork which was not really CPD or training. Managerial professionalism might support systems organisation and accountability, but it does not necessarily support ownership and autonomy (Sachs, 2003 and Mockler, 2013).

The CPD Leader in School A felt that there was some interconnection between school improvement, national initiatives and individual teacher needs. However, whilst reflecting on their own professional learning the teachers did not refer to the school development plan or to national issues. The discussion instead focused on their own professional needs, although Teacher 1 suggested that he was expected to look at

aspects of the school development plan as part of his CPD during his performance management interview. In School B there was scope within the performance management systems to focus on individual needs, but school development needs seemed to take precedence. This is the situation that is commonly reported in research into school CPD (Pedder and Opfer, 2011). In both case studies there appeared to be a disconnection between the individual professional learning that each teacher plans and takes ownership for and whole school planning of professional development. This was more evident in case study B. This can result in a mismatch between what each teacher wants in terms of professional learning and what the school delivers in terms of CPD. The school CPD Leaders talked about support for teachers but the school improvement plans were ultimately the dominant driver of school professional development. This was the situation reported by Bolam and Weindling (2006). McCormick (2010) reported that a lack of strategic planning resulted in ineffective professional learning for both the teacher and the school. It is clear that the strategic planning of CPD needs to include personalised planning of professional development that incorporates the needs of the teachers as well as the whole school.

Keay and Lloyd (2011), discussing the need for contextualised and personalised professional learning that is relevant to the development of teacher practice, describe similar issues to those faced by the teachers interviewed for this research. Both case study schools had well established systems of CPD but the systems lacked the flexibility to account for individual needs. The overall impression gained is a weak link between individual and whole school planning of professional development and a lack of clarity in the purpose of professional learning which would appear to be a significant issue for both schools in ensuring the effectiveness of professional learning.

The focus of professional development is on school improvement issues rather than teaching and learning. This, coupled with a focus on the SEN of the students, meant that there was little focus on teaching and learning. This presents a particular special school problem in the case studies when considered with the focus on the medical and care needs of the students. The need for greater personalisation that considers the professional development needs of the teachers is compounded in the case studies by a reduction in the time to focus on individual teacher needs because of the focus on training relating to the medical and care related issues.

Teacher 8 at School B reflected on the purpose of the professional development programme at School B:

There's a line where you think "how much of this is for my professional development and how much of it is for the school's development"

Teacher 8, case study B

This highlights potential confusion about the purpose of professional learning and a lack of clarity or conflict of interest at both a school and individual level. Should individual professional learning include a consideration of the school's needs as part of teacher professionalism? Definitions of teacher professionalism include a service role that could be reviewed as serving the wider school community as well as the pupils (Downie, 1990). Performance management for teachers also includes the setting of objectives in relation to school improvement. The development of teachers' knowledge through professional learning could include a focus on the developing needs of the institution in the context of democratic professionalism (Kennedy, 2007). However, Keay and Lloyd make the point that:

It is possible to see that, in a culture adopting a managerial approach to professionalism, a reactive approach to professional development is likely to be the outcome. This results in fulfilling official requirements, meeting targets set by managers, being accountable through standards-based assessment and providing evidence of success. Learning is seen to be generic in nature and professional knowledge is provided as a remedy for problems.

(Keay and Lloyd, 2011, p.23)

This description was particularly evident in case study B where the dominant terminology and processes and practices relating to professional development are those of managerial professionalism. This includes the dominant CPD models used for staff development, particularly the standards, training and deficit models of professional development. The teachers interviewed described programmes of professional development in terms of routine training and the development of professional knowledge to fill in knowledge deficits or to ensure progress relating to school improvement. The challenge in this case study is in supporting teachers who would like to use more collaborative and transformative models of CPD within a managerial culture, an issue highlighted by Whitty (2005). This reinforces the need to personalise professional development programmes to effectively address the planned learning needs of the individual teacher (Harland and Kinder, 1997). One of the main issues for the case study schools is how programmes of CPD can include more opportunities for teachers to take responsibility for their planning, as planning within the context of performance management seems to have its limitations.

The CPD Leaders in both case studies believed that the approach to focus on the SEN of the pupils from a medical view of SEN was the right strategy for professional

development. The case studies highlight one of the drawbacks of segregated special schools which is the narrowness of their focus. Case study A emphasises this more than case study B because of its autism specialism. Pupils in special school are labelled according to the schools' designation – e.g. as having learning difficulties or as being autistic – which leads to them being 'seen' as an homogenous group rather than as a diverse group with a variety of needs. This promotes the idea that CPD should be focussed on the label rather than the pupils' or the teachers' needs. The specificity of special schools means they focus on the SEN of the pupils rather than on teaching and learning. It may be that a focus on pedagogy would lead to more professional development opportunities for the teachers to plan improvements in their own practice, professional development that would potentially be more closely linked to the learning needs of the students.

Models of CPD

The four teachers in each case study commented on the models of CPD used in their schools. These responses were compared with the responses from the CPD Leaders in their interviews and the evidence found in the documentation. The nine models in Kennedy's Framework (Kennedy, 2005) are arranged hierarchically with the intention that there is an increasing capacity for professional autonomy as the models become more transformative in their approach. The model is presented here (Table 3) combined with coding from the analysis showing the number of times a particular model was referred to during the interviews for each case study.

Table 3: Table to show the number of times a model was coded in the interview data

Model	Number of times coded in the transcripts	
	Case study A	Case study B
Transmission		
1. The training model	19	16
2. The award bearing model	2	8
3. The deficit model	2	7
4. The cascade model	5	1
Transitional		
5. The standards based model	5	6
6. The coaching & mentoring model	12	2
7. The community of practice model	8	8
Transformative		
8. The action research model	1	2
9. The transformative model	1	1

The data demonstrates that the training model was referred to twice as much as the other models, with transmissive and transitional models being the most commonly used models. In the documentary evidence references to training occurred 64 times for case study A and 221 for case study B. There were also occasional references to the cascade model, the coaching and mentoring model and the action research model. In the CPD policies and plans of both case studies the use of the term training was unambiguous, referring to training as a model of delivery of CPD. However there were times when in the teachers' and CPD Leaders' interviews that the use of the term was unclear. At times teachers referred to training as a model of CPD, however they also seemed to use training as a generic term to mean CPD. For example Teacher 2 said:

So I think if I had a first choice of training, it would be at the school from colleagues who I respected. Training courses end up being slightly tedious and

the degree of relevance to you can range from 10% to maybe 100 but most of them you think, um, there are bits of it you think “aw, I just don’t want to be here, I just want to get out, I want to get out of here”, know what I mean? So for me I, I think learning from colleagues.

Teacher 2, case study A

In this case she seems to be using the term ‘training’ instead of professional development because she refers to training courses and then to learning from colleagues. It may be that the frequent use of the term training was because the teachers used the term to mean both a model of CPD and CPD itself. The ubiquitous use of the term in the documentation and by teachers has its dangers because of the impact in narrowing the common understanding of what constitutes professional development to a limited set of CPD models (Bubb and Earley, 2009). Bolam and Weindling (2006) found that perceptions about the nature and purpose of CPD had been slow to change. The teachers’ descriptions of professional development as training are also similar to that found in empirical research such as that by Hustler et al. (2003). This restricted view of CPD is evident in the case studies where CPD appears to be synonymous with training where a participant receives knowledge from an expert and then applies it to their practice (Kennedy, 2005). As Boyle, White and Boyle (2004) point out, training and courses are examples of CPD that are unlikely to encourage learning that changes teachers’ practice. If CPD follows a training model it is probable that there will be less opportunities for collaborative planning in the context of CPD activities (Cordingley et al., 2005)

The CPD Leader in case study B used the term training to refer to participating in a course and in conjunction with another model of CPD, the cascading model:

We work on a cascading method of training and so the obligation is that one goes on training and one comes back and feeds it in through staff meetings and/or key stage meetings or other department planning meetings. So that's how that all happens.

CPD Leader, case study B

She appears to be using training in the correct context and potentially as a worthwhile use of resources. The issue here is that the knowledge has only been passed on down a chain. There is no link to how the knowledge might be used to change the practice of any of the teachers. Whilst there was evidence of other models of CPD being used in the case studies, the dominance of training as a model of professional development was seen by the CPD Leaders as a necessary part of the CPD programmes when it was used in the context of delivering specific knowledge about types of SEN. For some topics, training can be an appropriate approach. However the overuse of the training model at the expense of other CPD models could lead to a lack of ownership and planning by the teachers because of a lack of opportunity to use models of CPD that promote ownership of their learning.

Teachers interviewed commented on an awareness of transmissive and transitional models such as the award bearing model and the coaching and mentoring model. The transformational and action research model were the models that the interviewees said were not used. However change was needed to move training away from it being the dominant form of CPD because of the limited evidence of its capacity as a model of CPD to bring about developments in classroom practice (Cordingley et al., 2005).

Teachers and CPD Leaders in both case studies identified that their schools were still working in the transmissive models but aspired to the more transformative models.

Teacher 3 in case study A felt that the school was moving from transmissive forms of CPD to a more transformative model. Teacher 1 also described this change but felt that the planning of school CPD, particularly planning in the context of performance management was becoming more prescriptive than it was when he first arrived, with a greater focus on school improvement issues. This was because the national performance management guidance was that teachers set targets around school improvement and whole school issues first before focusing on their individual needs (DfES, 2006).

The data in both case studies could imply a lack of knowledge about professional development and learning at an individual level. However some teachers articulated a more sophisticated concept of professional learning that included reflexivity similar to that described by Pollard (2005). Another interpretation is that it reflects poor conceptualisation of professional learning as a whole school, or a reflection of the ingrained terminology embedded in the language of the professional standards and performance management. Considering Opfer and Pedder's (2011a) arguments about complexity discussed earlier it would seem that a combination of national requirements in terms of performance management, school culture in terms of CPD and teacher knowledge of professional learning has led to a situation where the two schools are finding it challenging to move away from embedded models of CPD. This challenge of adopting more collaborative models of professional development that support teachers in having more ownership of their professional learning is similar to that described by Pedder and Opfer (2011).

Transformative models of CPD provision and their support for the professional learning of the individual teacher

After the first interview with the teachers it became clear that this question was part of the general discussion about the models of CPD at work in the schools using the framework of models of CPD (Kennedy, 2005). Both CPD Leaders referred to the need for a culture change where staff became aware of alternative methods of professional development rather than considering training courses or events and where they also began to take more responsibility for their professional learning. For example the CPD Leaders said:

I think it is a culture change, I think it's a move away from you know, "Oh, I'll wait to be told what to do and then I'll go away and do it," it's what I called, sort of more a dependency culture, isn't it, towards taking ownership more and applying that in their practice.

CPD Leader, case study A

And I think that was quite a, a shift in culture and expectation of a number of staff really which was just "well unless I'm going on a course I'm not doing any CPD."

CPD Leader, case study B

Both the CPD Leaders acknowledged that the case study schools were attempting to encourage a culture change whereby staff took more responsibility for their own learning and made greater use of transformative model of CPD, although the CPD leader in case study B felt that the definition was unclear. It appeared that many of the teachers interviewed share this lack of clarity and did not have a developed

understanding about different models of CPD. It was apparent that professional development was needed about the purpose and use of different models of CPD before the culture change suggested by the CPD Leaders in both case studies could take place. The overall impression is that the use of transformative models of CPD in the case study schools is patchy with isolated examples of transformative approaches to professional learning. There was evidence of teachers' interest in transformative models of development. For example, Teacher 4, when asked about the content of professional development in special schools compared to mainstream schools, replied:

Yeh, I think so. Well since I've been here, there's been more of a shift towards training about you as a professional and how you are going to be, and providing a themed training that's going to be relevant to your practice, while I think that training in a mainstream school has been a bit more broader.

Teacher 4, case study A

Teacher 4 takes a more ontological approach to her development using language similar to that of Dall'Alba (2009). She seems to be concerned with the beliefs and attitudes of being a professional and the transformation of her practice. Teacher 1 described a point in his career that could be described as a transformation in his practice in terms of his professional learning. He said:

And it was the most liberating experience of my entire teaching career without a shadow of a doubt because to go and do ICT, which was not my main strength although I'd done ICT at the SLD, I'd done obviously music technology, it suddenly made me realise that as a teacher I could teach and all I needed to do was get the learning under my belt.

Teacher 1, case study A

Dall’Alba (2009) argues that transformative approaches support the integration of knowing, acting and being a professional. The OECD report (2009) on teacher professional development emphasises the impact of changing teacher beliefs, attitudes and practices on teaching and learning. The change in Teacher 1, in the example above, was his personal understanding of his capacity to teach because he recognised that his teaching skills could be applied to a range of subjects. However, this change in his attitude can be interpreted as a significant stage of his professional development but not necessarily part of planned professional learning. It was an important element of his professional learning as a result of his informal reflections on his teaching when he started teaching ICT instead of music. However, the reliance on unplanned professional development opportunities as the sole context for professional learning does not provide the means for the long term development of teachers’ practice.

There was some evidence of interest in transformative models of CPD but only a little evidence of their use by the teachers interviewed, specifically Teachers 3 and 8. Both CPD Leaders felt that the school should make greater use of these models and they recognised their benefits. The CPD Leader at School A described the situation as:

That’s the thing, here you have to be very much in control as a leadership team.... very much involved you know, you set, you set the agenda don’t you, you identify the training needs and you deliver it, it’s quite un-risky really whereas down here (indicating transformative CPD models), yeah, you have to trust that people will be taking ownership of their learning, that they’re going to be motivated to improve their practice through that learning.

CPD Leader, case study A

She clearly identifies the issues concerning the use of more transformative models of professional development as risk and trust. Both managerial and democratic professionalism can be identified in the quotation (Sachs, 2003). The need for control and the pattern of identification of need and the delivery and evaluation of a programme is a managerial style of leadership that does not require significant levels of risk or trust. The surrender of ownership of professional learning to staff, trusting that they will develop their practice, is situated in democratic professionalism. The lack of transformative professional learning in the case studies could be an issue of leadership or it could be related to the need to ensure that staff in special schools have the knowledge and skills they need to work with children who have specific learning needs which then means little time left for more generic CPD. Mockler (2005) highlights the importance of school leadership in creating a culture where transformative approaches to professional learning can thrive:

Within schools, the development of transformative professionals will depend on the emergence of leaders who are willing to be transformative themselves – to build trust, to take risks, to think critically and to act with integrity.

(p.743)

As well as teachers and school leadership, an additional element within this complex situation is the policy environment in which the schools operate (Opfer, 2011). The policy environment in schools at the time of the collection of the data was and remains one of accountability, performance and outcomes (Patrick, Forde and McPhee, 2003). There is also the special schools policy environment to consider and the influence of models of disability on professional development. This creates an additional layer that works against the development of transformative approaches to professional learning by increasing the perceived risk of promoting such approaches.

Kennedy states:

It could be argued, then, that the key characteristic of the transformative model is its effective integration of the range of models described above, together with a real sense of awareness of issues of power, i.e. whose agendas are being addressed through the process.

(Kennedy, 2005, p.247)

Whilst there is a place within professional development programmes for all of the CPD models in the framework, there is a good case for the integration of more transformative models with other models of CPD to ensure that professional development results in learning that brings about a change in teacher practice (Whitty 2005; Kennedy, 2005; Fraser et al., 2007). The fact that both CPD Leaders recognised, to some extent, the value of transformative models of professional development but not sufficiently to make extensive use of them suggests that there is a need for professional development about the use and benefits of different models of CPD for school leaders as well as teachers.

The final question that the findings relating to transformative models of CPD raises is how can the case study schools plan to include transformative learning as part of organised programmes of professional development, a point that Fraser et al. (2007) raise in the context of investigating a range of CPD initiatives. One answer would be for the case study schools to make greater use of models of CPD that are situated closer to classroom practice, making use of reflective practice and enabling the teacher to exercise greater degrees of autonomy in the choices they make during professional development activities. Hargreaves describes this as Joint Practice Development (Hargreaves, 2012). Situating professional development closer to practice, where there are clearly articulated outcomes and where all participants benefit from the professional

development opportunities over a longer period of time can provide additional opportunities in which teachers plan their professional learning. Another solution is for the case study schools to use systems and processes that create opportunities for transformative practice such as the model developed by Keay and Lloyd (2011). Their model begins and ends with pupil learning and includes stages of planning, activity and evaluation relating the pupils' learning needs to the teachers' learning needs directly. It also takes account of school culture, acknowledging that transformative models of CPD have to be situated in professional development cultures that are supportive and promote transformative practice.

In examining the use of different models of CPD from the Kennedy framework (2005) the main challenge, in my opinion, for these case study schools was how the CPD Leaders and the teachers could adopt more transformative models of CPD within a framework of CPD that appeared to be initially highly prescriptive in both content and delivery. The teachers felt that they were able to plan and own their learning to some extent but that may have been limited by the school's apparent need to provide a programme of CPD to train teachers to use a specific range of strategies and also to provide professional development linked to the school's improvement plan and the pupils' SEN.

5.3.2. Teachers planning their professional learning

In the first set of interviews the discussions about the planning of professional learning took place after the teachers talked about their backgrounds, the professional learning that they had engaged in and their current position. During the second interviews, the teachers were asked to place themselves on the matrix of planning and ownership of

professional learning. The matrix had a horizontal and vertical axis. The horizontal axis represented ownership of professional learning and the vertical axis represented the planning of professional learning. Each teacher placed him or herself along the axis and their position was plotted in one of the quadrants. This formed the basis for continuing the discussion about planning and ownership of professional learning. The position on the diagram chosen by the teachers is illustrated in the diagram below.

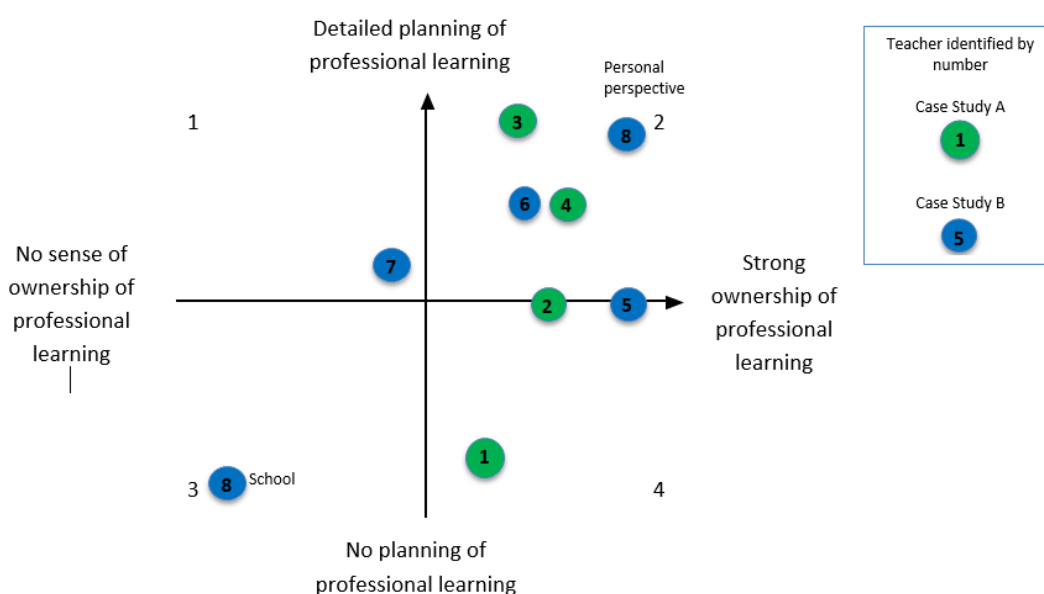


Diagram 7: The results of the planning and ownership of professional learning matrix

The point at which the teachers interviewed positioned their planning of professional development and learning on the matrix was consistent with the responses and comments during the interviews. In using this as a tool the choice was made to ask the teachers to place themselves on the diagram rather than representing their position based on a discussion. In this way it was a piece of data in its own right that could be used alongside the teacher's comments on his / her planning and ownership of professional

learning. The planning and ownership of professional learning matrix was a useful discussion stimulus, which provided the interviewees with a visual means of articulating the degree of planning and ownership they had over their professional learning.

Examining the planning aspect of the matrix, three teachers in each case study felt they were able to plan their professional development to some extent although this was qualified by three of the teachers (Teacher 2 in case study A and Teachers 7 and 8 in case study B) who felt that they sometimes did not get to participate in the CPD they had planned (this is discussed later in this section). The two teachers who felt that they did not plan their professional learning were Teacher 1 and Teacher 8.

Teacher 1, a 51 year old male teacher in case study A, described not planning any professional learning at the point of the interview but was keen to stress that this did not mean he would not engage in professional development. He described having planned learning at earlier stages of his career but felt comfortable in his current role and did not feel the need to plan any professional learning. He said that the extent to which teachers plan their professional learning depended on their 'life stage and position'. He described having a daughter with significant medical needs and felt that this influenced his degree of focus on his work. In the second interview he reinforced this position by placing himself on the matrix at a point where he was not planning his professional learning and described having nothing to plan for. He also said he would be happy to engage in professional development that was offered because he did not want to let people down. One of his comments was:

Oh well, ok, I can do that if you want me I don't feel I'm really particularly bothered about doing it necessarily, um, it would be hard to say when the last time was that I really chose a course that I desperately wanted to go on. Maybe it's just the age I'm at.

This was consistent with the findings of Hustler et al. (2003) and Bubb and Earley (2009) who found that teachers with over 20 years of experience participated in less professional development than was offered to them. Teacher 1 provides an example of the complexities in professional learning and development described by Opfer and Pedder (2011). In case study A the school's position was that it delivered much of its CPD through a training model but the CPD Leaders wanted to encourage more transformative models of CPD and more ownership of CPD by the teachers. As an older teacher, Teacher 1's individual view was that he did not feel the need to engage in professional development and did not see many opportunities on offer but equally did not want to let colleagues down. His choices are situated within the context of the professional culture of a special school, the CPD opportunities on offer, national policies about performance management and professional development planning as a part of performance management (Evans 2008). All of these factors influenced the degree of planning and the effectiveness of planning of professional learning. However in the complex web of factors it is difficult to view how planning professional learning and development would have been effective if the teacher was not motivated to engage in CPD and did not see the school offering any CPD that was of interest to him. There are both professional issues of professional responsibility (Downie, 1990) and school issues of cultures of professionalism (Sachs, 2003) influencing the degree of engagement in CPD.

In the three years since the introduction of the changes to performance management (DfES, 2006) the schools in both case studies had established new policies and procedures which teachers were familiar with. This was evident in both the

documentation and the interviews. Studies have shown that the national picture of links between performance management and the planning of professional development appeared to be patchy. Only some schools demonstrated good levels of integration between the systems and the integration appeared to be dependent on leadership staffing choices (Bubb, Earley, and Hempel-Jorgensen, 2008; Pedder and Opfer, 2010). The case studies data provided evidence of well-developed links between performance management and the annual planning of professional development for each teacher. The improved alignment of individual CPD planning with performance management as an annual process could be perceived as a positive outcome of changes to the arrangements for performance management. Prior to the changes to performance management the national picture identified by Hustler et al. (2003) was that planning was referred to in the context of CPD activities i.e. joint curriculum planning as a CPD activity, not the planning of professional development itself as a routine element of school systems (Ofsted, 2006). However, the integration of professional development planning in performance management is not without its tensions, as highlighted by Opfer and Pedder (2011b). Teacher 5, commenting on the influences on the professional development culture in case study B said:

Well, I suppose the terminology is a reflection of the culture we're in, you know, and the culture we're in is very much about, you know professional development and you know, progression and you know, we have to kind of be accountable and show progress and all that.

Teacher 5, case study B

Situating professional development within a framework of highly structured standards that measure performance linked to pay could potentially have a significant impact on the content of planned professional development with, as suggested earlier, the

performance management targets determining the professional learning choices. The special schools in the case studies appeared to encounter similar issues to mainstream schools, particularly in the area of performance management. Pedder and Opfer (2010) reported similar issues, from the findings of the State of the Nation Study, to those experienced by the case study schools. These included ongoing tensions in meeting the CPD requirements of individual teachers and whole school needs and a lack of clear alignment between performance management and CPD.

Equally, national initiatives and specific priorities relating to the special school context could also influence the planning choices teachers make. The CPD Leader in case study A described the process of trying to personalise professional development plans, even though the main focus of CPD was national initiatives and school improvement. She stated that:

So we do try to make them individualised and we ask teachers to prepare for their performance management meetings by thinking about what their development needs are, there's a proforma that they fill in and bring to the meeting so we're, we're trying to get them to think about where they are in terms, in the sense of their own learning.

CPD Leader, case study A

However the perspective of Teacher 1, in the same case study, on the planning of professional learning was that it had become more prescriptive:

In that respect it has become a bit more prescriptive than it was when I first arrived here, that it's now tied into how the school is going to develop.

Teacher 1, case study A

In both case studies the choices teachers make about professional learning would seem to be situated within a framework that prescribes the types of choices they can make (Evans, 2008). What freedom do the teachers have in planning their professional learning, when their choices are constrained by the boundaries of the professional standards, national initiatives, school improvement priorities and SEN priorities? The planning of professional development follows the setting of the performance management objectives and therefore is likely to be related to those objectives. The expectation in both schools was that the performance management objectives for each teacher should relate to the school improvement priorities, the curriculum and individual teacher needs where they fitted in with whole school priorities (Pedder and Opfer, 2010). However, curriculum related CPD in both case studies focused on the SEN needs of the pupils rather than focusing on pedagogical issues relating to teaching and learning which reduces opportunities for teachers to focus on their own curriculum development.

In the case studies schools professional learning was supported and encouraged and there are many CPD opportunities. However, the documentary evidence and the responses from the interviews suggested that the focus of CPD and the models used to deliver that CPD have had an impact on the breadth of opportunities teachers have in planning their professional learning. Within the case studies there is a contradiction in that the published programmes of CPD do not appear to create opportunities for teachers to carry out their own professional learning plans, instead providing detailed lists and schedules of professional development with mandatory and optional elements. If the teachers interviewed only planned within the context of what was on offer then the offer is crucial in determining what teachers have the opportunity to focus their professional learning on. Again this is particularly true of the case study schools where

a significant part of the CPD on offer is about the SEN of the pupils rather than on pedagogy.

There was no particular evidence in the data that teachers engaged in planning professional learning outside of the performance management process. However, none of the teachers made comments about the imposition of objectives. Teacher 8 was the only teacher who felt aggrieved that the independent choices she made were not supported by the school. The challenge is that if teachers view the annual programme of CPD as irrelevant and their own CPD choices as unsupported are they likely to engage in any meaningful professional learning? Whilst the reality of the situation is unlikely to be as polarised as this it does emphasise the importance of relevant programmes of CPD and school engagement in meeting the professional development needs of each colleague to ensure that the individual planning of professional learning is effective.

Consistent with the widespread absence of strategic approaches to CPD planning, the reasons that prompted teachers to participate in CPD tended to be personal and not linked to collective decision-making or an overarching strategic design.

(Pedder and Opfer, 2011, p.755)

Whilst both CPD Leaders identified school improvement as a performance management focus, there was little evidence of a strong link between whole school planning and individual planning of professional development. The CPD Leaders in both case study schools talked about the individual planning of CPD in the context of performance management. The CPD Leader in case study A seemed to show more awareness than the CPD Leader in case study B of the individual needs of the teachers at her school.

Both talked about CPD in whole school terms more than they talked about the individual, although the CPD Leader in case study A showed more awareness of individual teacher professional learning needs. In both case study A and B the schools' improvement plans listed whole school staff development but not individual staff development plans. Documentary evidence in both case studies shows highly structured whole school CPD plans that focus on the school SEN specialism (as well as other CPD issues) but that do not appear to support individual teachers in making their own professional learning plans.

There was a notable absence of comments relating to school improvement when teachers talked about their professional development activities. Although school improvement was a required focus for CPD planning as part of performance management, it was not mentioned in the context of individual planning of professional learning or as a motivation for learning. It would seem that the issue is partly that school policies and practices do not include opportunities for teachers planning and carrying out their own professional learning and development as an integral element of school improvement so that in turn teachers do not see the benefit of their professional learning on the whole organisation.

When the planning of professional learning by teachers is situated within more coherent frameworks of CPD provision in school, which builds in opportunities for teachers to identify plans, carry out and evaluate their professional learning, CPD has been found to be more effective. Bolam and Weindling (2005) found that giving teachers more opportunities for the joint planning of CPD activities meant that there was a greater likelihood of a transfer of practice. Boyle et al (2004) also found a positive correlation between sustained long-term CPD and changes in teaching practice. The State of the

Nation report (Pedder, 2008) emphasises the importance of long-term, continuous CPD that is research-informed, collaborative, and embedded in the context of teachers' work.

The European Commission report *Teachers' Professional Development - Europe in International Comparison* (2010), which is an additional analysis of teachers' professional development based on the OECD's Teaching and Learning International Survey (2009), highlights that teachers' perceptions of the culture and systems at work in a school influence their engagement with professional development. This engagement can be extended to involvement in the planning of professional learning. In both case studies, even though there was an apparent difference in professional cultures, planning of professional development was not consistent. The cultures and systems within the schools needed to integrate whole school and individual professional development in ways that ensured that they led to clearer outcomes in professional learning and improvement in individual and whole school practice.

5.3.3. Teachers owning their professional learning

Literature on adult learning identifies that self-determination is an important element for motivation and engagement in professional learning (Holton, Knowles, and Swanson 2005). The stance taken in the introduction is that ownership is a sense of responsibility for and self-determination to participate in professional learning. It is linked closely with the ability to individually plan professional development or learning. Whilst this definition was not given to the teachers during the interviews, it was clear in the data that for six of the teachers their ownership of the professional development or learning

was linked to self-determination of the process of organising their professional development or learning.

There were distinct differences in the degree to which the teachers felt that they had ownership of their professional learning, with some differences between the two groups of teachers in each case study. In the second interview the teachers were asked to comment on their ownership of professional learning in the context of where they placed themselves on the matrix of planning and ownership of professional learning (see diagram 7 in section 5.2.2.). Six out of eight of the teachers indicated a position beyond the middle of the ownership line which indicated greater ownership of their professional learning.

During the analysis there were fewer sections coded about ownership compared with those coded about the planning of professional learning. Another difference in this section of the interview compared with the section on planning was that the responses to questions about ownership were shorter and less detailed. As all eight teachers in both case studies were asked questions about planning and ownership it would seem that the teachers in the study had less to say about ownership of professional learning than the planning of professional learning. This may have been a result of my questioning, perhaps I did not probe the issue deeply enough, but in every case it seemed that teachers found it easier to talk about their planning rather than their ownership of their professional learning. It may also have been that ownership is a more conceptual term than planning and the issues of ownership were particularly complex so the teachers found it difficult to reflect on this during the discussion. Teacher 2 in case study A commented about some of the lines of questioning saying that they were challenging and difficult to answer. She implied that the answers were complex and difficult to

unpick, a reflection of Opfer and Pedder's (2011) argument that CPD issues are not one dimensional but complex.

In case study A the CPD Leader referred to a greater sense of ownership of CPD as a culture shift in perception. She described the movement away from a dependency culture where teachers were told what to do and went away and did it, to a situation where teachers had a much greater sense of self direction and responsibility for their learning. She said:

I think it is a culture change, I think it's a move away from you know, "Oh, I'll wait to be told what to do and then I'll go away and do it," you know, there's more, it's what I called, sort of more a dependency culture, isn't it, towards being, taking ownership more and applying that in their practice.

CPD Leader, case study A

She felt that, as a school, they were making some progress towards a situation where teachers took more ownership for their learning. Teacher 1 said the same to an extent and placed himself beyond the midline in the matrix but also said that he did not plan his professional learning because he did not feel there was anything he wanted to plan. Teachers 2, 3 and 4 in case study A all felt that they had a strong sense of ownership. As highlighted in the summary of case study B, the school was promoting a professional culture where teachers took ownership of their professional development. This perspective was not reflected in the documentation. A culture of ownership of professional development was evident to some extent in the teacher interviews. However Teacher 8, a middle leader in case study B, placed herself in two sectors on the diagram in relation to both the planning and ownership of her professional learning. She said:

I don't plan and I don't have ownership of my professional learning, I don't have any say in it... I gave, I gave myself ownership. Do you see what I mean? I made it mine but if I wasn't doing this, I don't think that I would feel I was getting enough professional development. ...

You see it's difficult because I don't think I have ownership of my professional learning, only in what I do myself. Like, my learning with regards to being in a lesson what they're learning and me adapting my strategies and changing my teaching style.

Teacher 8, case study B

She spoke with the most emotion and conviction of all the teachers. She described a strongly polarised position. She was disenchanted by school CPD; describing it in very negative terms, claiming no personal sense of planning and ownership for organised school based professional learning. However in her own time, and without any school support, she was studying for a second master's degree with a focus on inclusive education. The reason she gave for undertaking this study was that she enjoyed the academic challenge of extending her knowledge and understanding and developing her practice. She described having a strong sense of planning and ownership over the learning she engaged in, in her classroom and on her course.

Self-direction was clearly important and she had a well-developed definition of what constituted professional learning (Holton, Knowles, and Swanson, 2005). It was unclear how aware the school was about how she felt or to what extent she had made her line manager aware of how she felt. In this case ownership was linked to the ability to undertake the professional learning that she felt was important. Her sense of

disconnection from school CPD may have come from the lack of support she had in pursuing her own professional learning plan.

Whilst she had a strong sense of disenchantment with the systems relating to professional development, Teacher 8 could be described as having a clear sense of both planning and ownership of her professional learning, however that sense of planning and ownership is independent of policy and the institution she works in. During her interview she was able to articulate clearly the rationale for the choices she was making. In the context of professionalism, her polarised position presents an interesting case. She seems to be shaping her own professional development despite frustration with the systems and processes within the school she works in. Her sense of ownership extended beyond the sense of self determination over the planning of professional development to the degree of autonomy in organising personal professional development and also to the degree of involvement in the planning of whole school CPD. What is also clear is that the issues that motivate her as a professional learner are different from the focus and organisation of whole school professional development.

However, in case study B the teachers felt their ownership was reduced by the inconsistent implementation of their choices by the CPD Leader and other senior staff. Mockler (2005) discussed the need for increased levels of trust at a leadership level to promote greater autonomy in teacher professional learning and Muijs and Harris (2006) describe the role of school leaders in developing conditions that promote professional learning. This places the responsibility partly on the CPD Leader to exercise more trust but also to ensure that there is a greater connection between CPD planning and individual professional learning.

Ownership seems to be linked to the process of implementing professional choices, not just having ownership for the choice in the first place. Seven out of eight of the teachers identified that they had ownership for their choices, although the choices were influenced by other factors such as school improvement and it was this that affected their overall sense of ownership. For example, Teachers 3 and 7 commented that:

I would say what, what I'm able to have ownership over, I do. If you see what I mean. So, I'm, if there's something I want to do and it's within my capability of doing it, I'd do it.

Teacher 3, case study A

I have some sense of ownership in that I'd, I know what it is I want to do but I'm not always able to do it. So I'd say it's definitely not strong, I'd say it's somewhere along that line there.

Teacher 7, case study B

For some of the teachers there was a strong indication that a changing sense of ownership was influenced by the teacher's career stage and role. Teacher 4 described from her perspective how in the early stages of a career professional learning can be highly directed and it is often easier to identify the key areas for future development than in later career stages. She also identified that the availability of CPD may depend upon personal relationships with senior staff. She described herself as having a good relationship with the deputy Headteacher whilst in her first teaching post, resulting in her having access to a wide range of CPD. In her next school this was not the case and the opportunities were fewer. This is not necessarily about ownership but about equality and fairness in the provision of CPD in schools, an issue that is outside the scope of this

study. However what it does highlight is that there are a range of factors that influence the accessibility of professional development opportunities for teachers.

Issues limiting the ownership of professional learning

The data in both case studies suggest that the degree of ownership was reduced if the choices made during the planning of professional development did not take place.

Ownership seems to be linked to the process of implementing professional choices, not just having ownership for the choice in the first place. Teachers identified that they had ownership over their choices, although the choices were influenced by other factors such as school improvement and it was this that affected their overall sense of ownership.

In both case studies the evidence was of teachers who would like to use a wider range of CPD models but much of the CPD on offer was in the form of training and courses.

The consequence of this was limited opportunity for teachers to have greater ownership of their professional development and learning. Teachers were able to have some degree of ownership of professional learning in the context of performance management. A conclusion from the interviews is that teachers have ownership of their learning but that learning is qualified by the practical and organisational circumstances of the school demonstrated in the annual CPD plans.

The report Teachers' Professional Development (European Commission, 2010) suggests that using more collaborative models of professional development such as the professional learning communities described by Wenger (1999) provides the teacher

with more responsibility for engaging with their professional learning. The frequent references in the interviews to training and courses in both case studies suggests that the teachers had a narrow concept of what they could have ownership of, namely training and courses. A broader understanding of CPD would potentially increase the range of professional development opportunities the teachers felt that they could have ownership over if the case study schools were able to offer a broader range of opportunities such as more collaborative and classroom based professional learning (Opfer and Pedder, 2010).

Teacher attitudes and the ownership of professional learning

Teacher attitudes appeared to influence levels of ownership. However the issues are complex and different interpretations can be applied to the data (Hodgkinson, 2010). It became clear that each teacher had distinctive attitudes to professional development at the time of the interview and that these attitudes influenced the planning choices the teachers made and their sense of ownership of their professional learning. The European Commission report (2010) on teacher professional development also emphasises the importance of the beliefs and attitudes of teachers in engagement in professional learning. Teacher 1 gave the clearest example of the influence of differing attitudes to professional development choices. His attitude at the point of being interviewed was that he was not particularly planning any further professional learning and had no aspirations to be a middle or senior leader. His attitude was influenced by his personal circumstances and this had shaped his learning and career choices.

I'm sort of shoring up my own position really at the moment making sure that whatever I deliver I have sufficient knowledge to deal with it....I've just got to keep myself primed and going with what's needed for me.

Teacher 1, case study A

The picture here is of a teacher who is not actively engaged in a great deal of professional development but one who has ownership of the choices. He was not planning any professional learning, but he described having ownership of the professional learning choices he made. He was making a conscious choice not to pursue any learning at the point that he had reached in his career, even though he had taken a previous number of learning opportunities. During his interview he referred in detail to the process of learning, to informal learning experiences and his practical focus on the needs of the students. His lack of planning in relation to organised professional development opportunities does not take into account the informal professional development opportunities that can contribute significantly to professional learning (Hustler, 2003; Keay and Lloyd, 2011). He had developed his professional knowledge of professional learning, recognising that the acquisition of knowledge was not sufficient in the development of professional practice, a position similar to that of Cole (2004).

So yes, so how to do it is important, but, you know, you get those tools but it's about understanding a bit more than that, about what children are experiencing, about what they're learning not just what you're teaching.

Teacher 1, case study A

One interpretation is of a teacher not particularly engaged in his professional development. Another interpretation is of a teacher who is taking an activist role, such as that described by Sachs (2003) in his professional learning but who struggles to identify relevant opportunities to meet his learning needs.

At the point of being interviewed, the uncertainties Teacher 3 was experiencing about her next career choices were influencing the lack of immediate direction in her professional learning related to her career. Up until this point her professional learning had been very focused on her career development from teaching assistant to qualified teacher. In contrast, Teacher 4 was very clear about her role as a professional learner. She saw it as her responsibility to direct her own learning because she did not want that learning to be directed by someone else because of negative experiences in the past. Her attitudes to professional learning were strongly independent which was clear from the direct opinions she held on most areas relating to professional development, but she still qualified her ownership of professional learning in terms of the choices available in school and the degree of prescription in whole school CPD programmes.

Teacher 8, like many of the teachers interviewed, identified that her professional learning was strongly influenced by the needs of the students she taught. Teacher 6 particularly valued the learning gained through practical experience and viewed academic study as a means of gaining a qualification and validating the knowledge she had already developed through working with pupils. She said:

I can really choose the sort of training I want to go on, I think it's more important to have the experience so you know, here's a strategy, yes it works, no it doesn't, but I'm not going to place importance on learning theoretically.

Teacher 6, case study B

This attitude could also be linked to her sense of ownership of her learning shaping the professional development opportunities that she wanted to pursue. There is a diversity of attitudes and varied reasons for engaging in professional learning. These influence both the planning and the ownership of professional development and learning and

potentially, in turn, the impact of the development and learning experiences. What is clear is that teacher attitudes and dispositions have significance in ensuring the effectiveness of professional learning (Hodgkinson, 2010). This in turn reinforces the need to personalise professional development programmes to effectively address the planned learning needs of the individual teacher and to establish professional cultures where teachers have ownership of their professional learning and development (Harland and Kinder, 1997). Continued use, in the case studies, of a training model to deliver CPD, and the situating of professional development planning in the context of a highly structured process of performance management, could lead to teachers taking less ownership of their professional learning.

5.4. Chapter Summary

The first part of the chapter discussed the process of building the case studies using the data from the interviews and documentation from each case study school leading to case study summaries. In both case studies the data showed that the schools provided extensive programmes of CPD linked primarily to the SEN of the pupils and school improvement priorities. Both schools used the training model as the main means of delivering professional development. With reference to Kennedy's Framework of CPD Models (2005), a range of CPD models was found in use in both schools with a dominance of more transmissive models such as training. The provision of CPD through the use of the training model could be linked to the medical model of SEN that appeared to underpin the school cultures in both case studies. There was little evidence to demonstrate that individual teacher professional development was included in whole school CPD planning apart from alerting teachers to available courses and

qualifications. The findings from both case studies also demonstrated that the lack of implementation of the professional development choices made by the teachers interviewed had a detrimental impact on the perceived ownership of professional learning.

The links between the strands of data in both case studies illustrated the complexities of the factors that influenced the planning and ownership of professional learning (Earley, 2010). The teachers interviewed expressed a desire to have a more planned approach to professional learning and many saw it as an important element of their professional practice, however the teachers discussed planning of professional learning that was personal and not linked to school improvement. The CPD Leaders, in both case studies, talked about support for teachers but the school improvement plans and SEN of the pupils were ultimately the dominant drivers of school professional development, resulting in a mismatch between what each teacher wanted in terms of professional learning and what the school delivered in terms of CPD. This finding is consistent with the findings from recent research into mainstream school professional development (Opfer and Pedder, 2011). There appeared to be an aspiration on the part of the teachers to use more transformative models of professional development. The dominance of performance management in systems of professional development within the case studies promoted an environment in which a more managerial form of professionalism seems to underpin the planning of professional development. This is in contrast to and potentially at odds with the democratic professionalism suggested by more transformative models of CPD.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1. Introduction

The final chapter of this thesis is divided into two sections. The first part focuses on the scope and limitations of the research. The second section draws conclusions and makes recommendations based on the discussion of the findings in chapter 5. As stated in the introduction, the intention of the thesis was to be able to make a contribution to the understanding of professional learning, specifically in the context of teachers working in special schools. As a practitioner researcher, the intention was also to make recommendations that were relevant to other practitioners working to support teachers in their professional learning.

6.2. Scope and Limitations of the Methodology

At the beginning of the research process four questions were identified, however the findings and the process of analysis did not address the questions equally. The first two questions, relating to the planning and ownership of professional learning, generated considerable data, as did the question on the support that whole school CPD processes offered the professional learning of the teacher. The question concerning transformative models of CPD provision received the fewest direct responses. Whilst this is not necessarily a limitation because there was indirect evidence relating to this issue, the limited responses reduced the scope of the question to explore the issue fully and steered it in a direction that asks why transformative models of CPD were not utilised as fully as they could be in the case study schools. The analysis of the data in relation to

the transformative focus of CPD was linked to the evidence on school systems processes and models of CPD through the use of the Framework of Models of CPD (Kennedy, 2005).

The use of the term professional learning was not unproblematic and it might have given greater clarity during the interview process if the term professional development had been used, as this was a term with which the teachers were more familiar (Bubb and Earley, 2009). Professional learning is not a term that was widely used in either of the schools or by the teachers interviewed for the research. The terms were deliberately not defined at the beginning of the interviews so that the teachers could use terms with which they were familiar. Schwandt (2005) describes the process of interpretive research as making a reading of the interpretations that people have made of the world, in this case the people are teachers in special schools. An important element of the reading of the data was to consider the meaning the subjects attach to the main terms of the research. Whilst not unproblematic it led to the generation of valuable data which in turn led to significant themes being identified during the analysis. This was particularly the case in the use of the term 'training' to refer to professional development and the types of model of CPD in use in both case studies.

A potential limitation of the research process was not in the overall methodological approach but in the gathering and analysis of data. The choice was to use semi-structured interviews, in order to allow greater flow during the discussion (Robson, 2002). Initially my approach was more structured, particularly during the pilot phase of the data collection, and my style was more ordered in the first set of interviews. It was less so in the second set of teacher interviews because the discussion was an expansion of the initial responses from the first set of interviews. The less structured approach

generated more nuanced data that provided a deeper insight into the views and situations of the teachers interviewed.

The planning and ownership of professional learning matrix was a useful discussion stimulus, which provided the interviewees with a visual means of articulating the degree of planning and ownership they had over their professional learning. The descriptors that were developed to identify each of the quadrants were less useful. The teachers interviewed discussed the lines for planning and ownership separately and then placed themselves in one of the quadrants. What became apparent was the complexity within each case study, with the teachers needing to break down the issues into simpler components in order to discuss them (Opfer and Pedder, 2011).

The contribution that the use of the Nvivo 9 software made to the research process was its capacity to search through large volumes of data almost instantly using sophisticated search tools. This gives the researcher the freedom to continuously search the data for patterns and themes during the analysis, which would otherwise require the complex process of moving backwards and forwards through the stages of coding over a number of months. The benefit of software such as Nvivo 9 in supporting qualitative data analysis is that it frees the researcher to use his/her time to think and explore in greater breadth and depth the 'landscape' of the data whilst the software carries out the laborious task of searching through large amounts of data. However, there is always a tension that the range of tools within the software will drive the analysis (Bazeley, 2007). I avoided this through keeping reflective memos during the data collection, coding and analysis process. Reflection on the purpose of each part of the data exploration helped ensure that the process of analysis, particularly the use of Nvivo 9, was relevant and not just driven by the capabilities of the software.

The use of a thematic analysis was not without its limitations. The issues were complex and it proved difficult to draw out an individual set of themes. There was a complex interplay between the teacher and the systems and processes at work in each school which led to the development of themes that were specific to each question and themes that ran through all the questions as identified in Chapter 4. In the introduction, Opfer and Pedder's (2011) commentary on research into professional development was used to highlight the complexity of the issues and the need for a more complex conceptualisation of the issues around professional learning. The use of a thematic analysis supported the development of the case studies with the range of themes illustrating the complexities of the planning and ownership of professional learning (Payne, 2007).

The main limitations identified with the case study approach are the contextual nature of the data and the argument that the findings are often too subjective and not generalisable (Gomm, Hammersley and Foster, 2000). The intention of the research was that the findings would not be generalisable but applicable to the specific context of special education and the wider context of professional learning and development (Thomas, 2012). The case studies were exploratory and theory building with the intention of providing answers and responses to the research questions within the specific context of teachers working in special schools in the south east of England. This outcome was achieved and whilst research using an interpretive methodology could be criticised in providing a subjective reading of the data, that argument could also be made about qualitative research in general. In spite of the limitations highlighted above, the interpretation of the data through the process of analysis and the building of the case

studies provided findings in answer to the key issues about the planning and ownership of professional learning in special schools.

6.3. Conclusions and Recommendations

6.3.1. School CPD and the Special School Context

Both of the schools were segregated special schools. There was evidence of well-developed programmes of training and development in each. These programmes included training on learning, medical, communication, social and behaviour needs. The programmes included training for both teachers and support staff. Using Kennedy's Framework of CPD models (Appendix 2) the teachers interviewed from both schools identified the first five models most frequently as the methods used to deliver professional development (Kennedy, 2005). These were the training, award bearing, deficit, cascade and standards based models. This indicates that the dominant models in both schools were transmissive models, with teachers commenting most on training and courses. This would appear to be the result of a significant influence of the special school context in both case studies. There was evidence in the case studies, both in the interviews and in the school documentation, that the use of training as a model of CPD is linked to the use of the medical model of SEN. This model focuses on the diagnosis, intervention and support for the medical and care needs of the pupils. The model requires a focus on specific practical knowledge and skills that is suited to a training model of CPD. However, it did not account entirely for the dominant focus on training. This was reinforced by the terminology used by the teachers, as indicated earlier in the chapter, which was that of training and courses. In addition, the planning of professional development was carried out within a performance management structure

and whilst there was no direct evidence, one interpretation would be that this context created a standards based and deficit model of CPD (Kennedy, 2005) within which the planning of professional development was undertaken.

One of the main contributions to knowledge is in the findings relating to the specificity of the context. There is very little research about professional development and learning in special schools. This research produced findings that are similar to the findings from the State of the Nation research study into CPD in England suggesting that special schools experience many of the same challenges as mainstream schools (Pedder and Opfer, 2011). However it was also clear that a medical model of SEN was evident in the organisation and planning of CPD in both case studies (Davis & Watson, 2001). As suggested in the last paragraph a challenge for special schools is the influence of the medical model, rather than the social model of SEN, on CPD.

Pupils in special schools are often labelled according to the schools' designation e.g. as having learning difficulties or as being autistic, which can lead to them being viewed as an homogenous group rather than as a diverse group with a variety of needs. The consequence of this is that CPD focuses on the label or diagnosis rather than on the pupils' or the teachers' needs. The medical model represents an outdated view of inclusive practice with its focus on the disability rather than the child (Terzi, 2005). This model underpinned the ethos of the case study special schools and influenced the development of professional knowledge provided through the programmes of professional development (Evans, 2008). As a result the focus of professional development on routine training about the medical and care needs of the students appears to be promoted at the expense of a focus on teaching and learning.

Other models of CPD mentioned by the teachers from Kennedy's Framework of CPD models included coaching and mentoring, community of practice, action research, and transformative models which were recognised and used to some extent by some of the teachers but not in any systematic manner in either school. The CPD Leader in case study A wanted to implement a programme of coaching and mentoring throughout the school and the Outreach Coordinator at School A (Teacher 4) wanted to make greater use of communities of practice. Whilst well established programmes of professional development are wholly appropriate, the evidence is that the embedding of professional learning requires a broader range of professional development models than those identified within the schools in this study (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). However, it would present a considerable challenge for the case study schools to consider the adoption of different models of disability and the use of different models of professional development at the same time.

The findings highlight that the professional development cultures in the two case studies are different. The culture of each school influences the professional development culture and systems established, with a more collegial approach in School A and a more managerial approach in School B (Sachs, 2003). One interpretation of the data was a greater expectation of the teachers in School B to attend training and meet targets. However, it might have been the case that the senior leaders felt they were creating development opportunities for individuals and teams. It appeared that there was a lack of personalisation in the need to attend development activities at both schools, a picture similar to that described in mainstream schools by Pedder and Opfer (2013). A number of teachers also felt that the programmes of routine professional development, which in this case linked clearly to meeting the medical and care needs of the pupils, impacted on the additional choices they were able to make in their professional learning.

Within this web of informal and planned development opportunities it was evident that most of the teachers appeared to have multiple layers of professional development taking place at the same time. A teacher could be engaged in a prolonged period of academic study, participating in training on a specific SEN or embedding some prior CPD in their classroom practice at the same time. The range and depth of a teacher's professional learning will influence his or her capacity to focus on the potentially competing personal and school professional development priorities. This was evident in the experience of Teacher 8 who struggled with conflicting priorities despite engaging in some planning of her professional learning.

6.3.2. Transformative Professional Development

The data on transformative professional development supported two conclusions.

Firstly the teachers and CPD Leaders interviewed had some knowledge and experience of transformative models of professional development, with two teachers articulating a more detailed appreciation of its benefits, such as those advocated by Dall'Alba (2009).

The second conclusion was that there was little use of transformative models of CPD even though both CPD Leaders advocated a greater use of this in the future. The fact that transformative models of professional learning were not used to any significant extent in either case study is a significant finding in itself. All of the models have been clearly described for several years, including transformative models of professional learning such as action research (Kennedy, 2005). As has been suggested earlier, the two case study schools had different cultures that each influenced professional development, but neither had made use of transitional and transformative models of professional development. The future challenge for the schools in the case studies is

how to develop their knowledge about and utilisation of a much wider range of models of professional development.

Kennedy's Framework of Models of CPD generated considerable discussion and was a helpful tool in considering the issues around the different models of CPD. Some of the areas of professional development highlighted by the teachers interviewed did not fit neatly into the model Framework but could instead be recognised as elements of a number of models.

Whilst the transformative model is clear from a theoretical perspective, the teachers interviewed found the concept of transformative learning a difficult one to understand. Other models were more clearly descriptions of types of professional development. The challenge with the transformative model was that it was an amalgamation of the other models with an additional focus on autonomy and what Kennedy (2005) described as a sense of awareness of power. In the next section on recommendations the inclusion of an additional model is suggested as an addition to the transformative section of the Framework.

6.3.3. Planning

The first conclusion that can be drawn from the data on the planning of professional learning is that all the teachers interviewed identified some professional development needs as part of the performance management process, with seven out of eight commenting specifically on this. This can be seen as a positive outcome of the integration of professional development within the process of performance management.

The process of performance management includes an annual review and target setting meeting. At this meeting new objectives are set for the following year, one of which is expected to relate to school improvement, and professional development needs are identified. One of the problematic issues of situating professional development planning within performance management is the influence of the performance management objectives on the professional development planning. School improvement needs were prioritised at the expense of teacher needs. Teachers in both schools were expected to identify objectives related to the school improvement plan.

Research evidence provided by Bolam and Weindling (2006) discussed in Chapter 2, demonstrates that teachers feel that school improvement priorities and national initiatives take precedence over the needs of teachers in whole school CPD plans. During the discussions with the teachers interviewed it was clear that their professional learning focus was on meeting their own needs and the needs of the pupils they taught. This finding would seem to provide a new insight into this area, pointing to a dichotomy between the teachers' professional development plans identified during performance management and their professional learning aspirations. The teachers also felt that the professional learning needs identified as part of performance management were not necessarily met in the following year. This appeared to be due to requests for specific activities or courses being turned down as a result of issues related to whole school priorities or funding constraints.

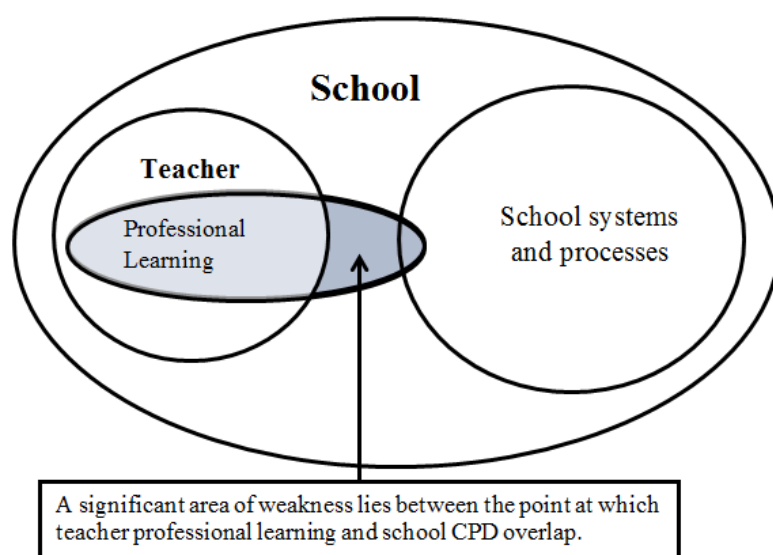


Diagram 8: the interface between individual professional learning and whole school CPD

Diagram 8 illustrates problems in the connection between whole school CPD and teacher professional learning. Each case study school had a set of CPD priorities linked to pupil needs and school improvement issues. Within each school the teachers interviewed had their own professional learning needs. For the teachers interviewed there was a disconnection between their professional learning needs and whole school CPD planning. One conclusion, for the teachers interviewed, would be that there is a need for greater coherence between the professional learning needs, the professional development requirements established as part of performance management and the subsequent activities put in place during each academic year as part of whole school CPD planning. This conclusion supports the findings of Pedder and Opfer (2010 and 2011) who also suggest that there are significant differences in the levels of support for teacher professional learning and a frequent lack of clarity and disconnection between teacher professional learning and whole school strategic CPD planning. In the case studies this problem is compounded by the impact of the special school CPD focus on

the medical and care needs of the pupils reducing the capacity to provide CPD on issues identified by the teachers that relate to their classroom practice.

6.3.4. Ownership

In the discussion of the findings in Chapter 5, it was highlighted that the teachers interviewed felt that they had different degrees of ownership of their professional learning. Several of the teachers gave initially positive responses, but after reflecting on their responses using the matrix of the planning and ownership of professional learning (see Appendix 2), they qualified their answers. These teachers then linked ownership of the choices they had made during performance management to permission given to them at a later stage to participate in an activity. Teacher ownership decreased if a teacher made a choice about professional learning and the activity was turned down at a later stage. The conclusion is that teachers experience greater ownership if the choices they make are translated into actual learning opportunities. This would be achieved by ensuring greater coherence between the planning of professional development that takes place during teacher appraisal and whole school CPD planning which takes place after all the appraisal interviews are completed.

The findings from the case studies relating to the Framework of Models of CPD (Kennedy, 2005) demonstrated that the focus of professional development by the teachers interviewed was on training events and courses, a finding similar to that of Bubb and Earley (2009). This can be linked to the research findings where several of the teachers felt they had more ownership of professional development where they had greater determination of it taking place, for example peer observation, sharing practice and independent academic study.

These findings highlight the conclusion that there are multiple layers of ownership, with different school and individual factors influencing each layer, across teachers' careers. There appeared to be degrees of ownership of planning of professional learning, degrees of ownership of putting the planned choices into action and varied ownership of the process of embedding learning. The strength of ownership of professional learning appeared to change throughout the careers of the teachers interviewed. The degree of ownership is also influenced by a change of context, for example when teachers move from mainstream schools to special schools, or with the influence of specific training needs when teaching pupils with SEN.

6.4. Recommendations

The first recommendation for the case study schools is the need for greater personalisation in meeting individual teacher professional learning needs (Pedder and Opfer, 2013). Peer observation and support have the potential to offer greater personalisation but it can lack the focus necessary to result in a change in practice which is why it is included within the transitional models of CPD. One suggestion is the inclusion of Hargreaves (2012) model of Joint Practice Development as an additional model within the transformative models of CPD. It locates professional development closer to practice and emphasises the benefits of collaboration in professional development. The diagram below suggests how the new model could be added into the existing framework.

Models of CPD	Purpose of model
1. The training model 2. The award-bearing model 3. The deficit model 4. The cascade model	Transmission
5. The standards-based model 6. The coaching/mentoring model 7. The community of practice model	Transitional
8. The joint practice development model 9. The action research model 10. The transformative model	Transformative

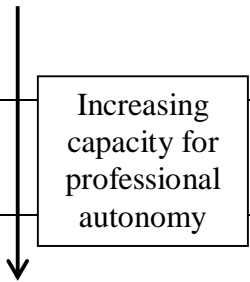


Diagram 9: Development of the Framework of Models of CPD to include the Joint Practice Development Model

Hargreaves (2012) argues that most peer to peer professional development does not result in a ‘practice transfer’ where one of the participants benefits with a result in a change in their practice. He proposes a process of joint practice development which he describes as a collaborative process that is not just one-way; the practice is being improved, not just moved from one person or place to another. In order to be effective it has to be a planned process where there are high levels of ownership by all the parties participating in the process. It differs from the action research model and the transformative model in that it does not have to have a research focus and it is less dependent on the circumstances that promote professional autonomy being in place to ensure its success. However it would require a professional development environment within a school culture supportive of collaborative models of professional learning. The Joint Practice Development Model has the potential to offer increased capacity for personalisation as well as greater autonomy within professional learning.

A second recommendation is the development of greater coherence in individual and whole school planning of professional development to address the mismatch between whole school CPD planning and individual teacher needs. Pedder and Opfer (2011) state that schools need support in developing more coherent and strategic planning of professional development.

Both of these aims could be achieved by using a clearly defined model, such as the model suggested by Keay and Lloyd (2011) that includes the identification, planning, organisation and evaluation of professional learning and that links children's learning with teachers' professional learning. It could also be achieved by providing professional learning about professional development for the teachers and school leaders. This is a development similar to that recommended by Cole (2004) with development of practice which in this case is the development of transformative practice in professional learning.

A specific recommendation for the two case study schools, which focuses on the professional knowledge the staff hold in common, would be to engage in professional development about models of SEN. Critically reflecting on the SEN ethos and culture that underpins the pedagogical practices of the school and individual teachers would enable the school to ensure that it offers best practice, particularly in terms of teaching and learning.

6.5. Future Research

There are three suggestions for further research. Whilst this research was able to demonstrate that there was some evidence of the individual planning of professional

learning by the teachers interviewed, it was outside the scope of the thesis to examine the effectiveness of that planning in the context of the whole learning process.

Longitudinal research with the purpose of establishing the effectiveness of the full process of professional learning for a number of teachers could include examining the whole process of identification and planning of professional development needs, the selection of models of CPD or activities to support that learning and the impact for both the teachers and pupils on implementation of subsequent learning.

It was evident in the findings that some of the teachers interviewed had a limited knowledge of different models of professional learning, their purpose and the context in which to use them. This was particularly true of transformative models of professional development. Further research could be carried out into teacher knowledge of models of professional learning, the nature and impact of the different types of professional development and teacher knowledge of transformative models of professional development.

The third area for suggested further research is a response to Norwich and Lewis's (2007) question, highlighted in chapter 5, 'How specialised is teaching children with disabilities?' If, as many authors would argue, pedagogy is the same for all pupils but given differing emphasis depending on individual needs, then further research is needed into why cultures of SEN and cultures of CPD are slow to change in segregated special schools. The answers to these questions would have a significant influence on the support given to teachers working with children with SEN when planning their professional learning.

6.6. Concluding Comments

The key findings in this thesis provide additional insight into the factors that will support teachers in the planning of their professional learning. The processes and influences on professional learning as Opfer and Pedder (2011a) suggest are complex. However the personalisation of whole school CPD and establishing greater coherence between teacher learning and whole school professional development are needed to support teachers in the planning and ownership of professional learning (Pedder and Opfer, 2013). During this research the use of an interpretive approach has supported my own reflection on professional learning as a CPD Leader. Whilst reflecting on my interpretation of professional learning in my school I have been challenged, as a special school Deputy Headteacher, about the influence of different models of disability, particularly the medical model, on pedagogy, professional knowledge and professional learning. I have reflected with other members of the leadership team about the models of disability that underpin the school culture and policies, and as a CPD Leader have thought about how I can use professional development to provide opportunities for staff to consider the models of disability that influence teaching and learning.

I have recognised the need in my school for a more personalised approach to CPD planning that creates opportunities for staff to make choices about their learning. Mockler (2005) refers to the need for trust and risk taking as leadership qualities necessary for the development of transformative practice. Reflection on these qualities combined with the need for training about models of professional development has influenced the CPD provision in my own school. For example I am now providing staff with professional development about the use of different models of CPD and

opportunities to carry out joint practice development using peer observation. Carefully targeted use of different models of CPD has facilitated a better balance between essential training, professional development relating to school improvement issues and personalised professional learning. Carrying out this research has equipped me with a better understanding about my role and my responsibility as a leader to promote and develop a culture of democratic professionalism and the use of models of professional learning that support teachers in making their own choices.

Bibliography

Bassey, M. (1992) 'Creating Education through research, Presidential address to the British Educational Research Association', *British Educational Research Journal*. 18 No 1: p.3-16

Adams, J., Joan Swain, J. & Jim Clark, J. (2000) 'What's So Special? Teachers' Models and Their Realisation in Practice in Segregated Schools', *Disability & Society*. 15(2) p.233-245

Bauman, Z. (2002) *Society Under Siege*, Malden Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Inc

Bauman, Z. (2005). Afterthoughts, in Denzin, Y. & Lincoln, N. (2005) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research, Third Edition*, London: Sage

Bazeley, P. (2007) *Qualitative Data Analysis with Nvivo*, London: Sage

Benjamin, W. (1999) 'The Work of Art in the Age of Mechanical Reproduction', in. H. Arendt. *Illuminations*, Ed. London: Pimlico p.211-244

BERA (2011) *Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research*, Southwell (Notts): British Educational Research Association, Available at:
<http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/ethical-guidelines> [accessed on: 1/8/12]

Blaikie, N. (1993) *Approaches to Social Enquiry* 2nd Ed., London: Polity Press

Bloomberg, L. D. & Volpe, M. (2008) *Completing Your Qualitative Dissertation, A Roadmap From Beginning to End*, London: Sage

Bolam, R. & Weindling, D. (2006) '*Synthesis of research and evaluation projects concerned with capacity-building through teachers' professional development*,' London: GTCE

Bottery, M. (2006) 'Education and Globalisation: redefining the role of the education professional', *Educational Review*, 58(1) p.95-113

Boyatzis, R. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Boyle, B., White, D., & Boyle, T. (2004) 'A longitudinal study of teacher change: what makes professional development effective?' *Curriculum Journal*, 15(1) p.45-68

Bridges, D. (1997) 'Philosophy and Educational Research: A Reconsideration of Epistemological Boundaries', *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 27(2) p.177-89

Bridges, D. (2003) *Fiction Under Oath*, Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers

Bubb, S. and Earley, P. (2009) 'What do we know about school workforce development? A summary of findings from recent TDA- funded research projects', *Institute of education eprints*, Available from <http://eprints.ioe.ac.uk/2842/1/Bubb2009WhatTDA.pdf> [accessed on 13/07/2011]

Bubb, S., Earley, P., and Hempel-Jorgensen, A. (2008) '*Staff Development Outcomes Study*. Project Report. Training and Development Agency for Schools', (TDA).as:http://www.tda.gov.uk/upload/resources/pdf/s/staff_development_outcomes_study.pdf [accessed on 13/07/2011]

Burgess, H., Sieminski, S., Arthur, L. (2006) *Achieving Your Doctorate in Education*, London: Sage

Cherryholmes, C.H. (1999) *Reading Pragmatism*, New York: Teachers College Press

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2000) *Research Methods in Education*. 5th ed. London: Routledge

Coldwell, M. & Simkins, T. (2011) 'Level models of continuing professional development evaluation: a grounded review and critique', *Professional Development in Education*, 37(1) p.143-157

Cole, P. (2004). *Professional development: A great way to avoid change*, Paper No. 140. Melbourne, Australia: Centre for Strategic Education

Cordingley, P., Bell, M., Evans, D., Firth, A. & (CPD Review Group) (2005) The impact of collaborative CPD on classroom teaching and learning. Review: What do teacher impact data tell us about collaborative CPD? EPPI-Centre, London

- Cordingley, P., Bell, M., Rundell, B., and Evans, D. (2003) The impact of collaborative CPD on classroom teaching and learning. In: *Research Evidence in Education Library*. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London
- Creswell, J. (2009) *Research Design, Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*, Third Ed, London: Sage
- Crotty, M. (1998) *The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process*, London: Sage
- Dall'Alba, G. (2009) 'Learning Professional Ways of Being: Ambiguities of becoming', *Educational Philosophy and Theory*. 41(1) p.34-45
- Darling-Hammond, L., Wei, R., Andree, A., Richardson, N., & Orphanos, S. (2009). 'Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the United States and abroad', Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council
- Davis J. M. & Watson, N., (2001) 'Where Are the Children's Experiences? Analysing Social and Cultural Exclusion in 'Special' and 'Mainstream' Schools, *Disability & Society*', 16(5) p.671-687
- Day, C. & Qing Gu (2010) *The New Lives of Teachers*, Abingdon: Routledge

Day, C. (1999) 'Professional development and reflective practice: purposes, processes and partnerships', *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, 7(2) p.221–233

Day, C. (2002) 'School reform and transitions in teacher professionalism and identity', *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37(8) p.677-692

DCSF (Department for Children Schools & Families) (2005) *Five Year Strategy*, Available from: <http://www.education.gov.uk/publications//eOrderingDownload/DfES-5%20Year%20Plan.pdf> [accessed on 1/3/11]

DCSF (Department for Children Schools & Families) (2009) '*The Lamb Inquiry: Special Educational Needs and Parental Confidence*', London: HMSO

DCSF (Department for Children Schools & Families) (2010) *Salt Review: Teacher Supply for Pupils with Severe and Complex Learning Difficulties*. Annesley: DCSF.

Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y. (1995). 'Transforming Qualitative Research Methods. Is it a Revolution?' *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 23(3) p.349–58

Denzin, Y. & Lincoln, N. (1998) *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry*, London: Sage

Denzin, Y. & Lincoln, N. (2005) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research, Third Edition*, London: Sage

Dewey, J (1910) *How we think*, Available from: <http://www.e-booksdirectory.com/details.php?ebook=3796> [accessed on 11/5/2011]

DfE (Department for Education) (2012) *Teachers' Standards*; London, HMSO,

Available from:

<https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/teachers%20standards.pdf> [accessed on: 20/09/12]

DfE (Department for Education) (2012) *The Education (School Teachers' Appraisal) (England) Regulations 2012*, Available from:

<http://www.legislation.gov.uk/uksi/2012/115/contents/made>. [accessed on 4/8/12]

DfEE (Department for Education & Employment) (1999) *The National Curriculum*, London: HMSO

DfEE (Department for Education & Employment) (1998) *Teachers: meeting the challenge of change*. Green Paper. London: DfEE

DfEE (Department for Education & Employment) (2001) *Learning and Teaching: A Strategy for Professional Development* (the Green paper), London, HMSO.

DfES (Department for Education and Skills) (2001) *Special Educational Needs Code of Practice*. London: DfES

DfES (Department for Education & Skills) (2003) *Raising Standards and Tackling Workload: A National Agreement*, London: DfES 0172/2003

DfES (Department for Education & Skills) (2004) *Every Child Matters*. London: DfES Publications

DfES (Department for Education & Skills) (2006) The statutory framework for performance management in England is provided by The Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations. Available from:
[http://www.tda.gov.uk/upload/resources/pdf/t/the_education_\(school_teacher_performance_management\)_\(england\)_regulations_2006.pdf](http://www.tda.gov.uk/upload/resources/pdf/t/the_education_(school_teacher_performance_management)_(england)_regulations_2006.pdf) [accessed on: 09/08/2009]

Doecke, B., Parr, G. & North, S. (2008) *National Mapping of Teacher Professional Learning Project Final Report*, Monash University, Available from:
<http://www.deewr.gov.au/Schooling/QualityTeaching/researchandpublications/Pages/Home.aspx#mapping> [accessed on 11/5/2011]

Downie, R.S. (1990), 'Professions and Professionalism', *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 24(2) p.147-159

Drefus, H.L. and Hall, H. (1992) *Heidegger: A Critical Reader*, Cambridge, Mass: Blackwell

Earley P., (2010) 'State of the Nation': a discussion of some of the project's key findings', *Curriculum Journal*, 21(4) p.473 – 483

Edwards, R., and Nicoll, K., (2006)'Expertise, competence and reflection in the rhetoric of professional development', *British Educational Research Journal*, 32(1) p.115 - 131

Elliott, J., Stemler, S., Sternberg, R., Grigoreko, E., & Hoffman, N. (2011) 'The socially skilled teacher and the development of tacit knowledge', *British Educational Research Journal*. Vol. 37(1) p.83-103

Eraut, M. (1994) *Developing Professional Knowledge and Competence*. London: Falmer

European Commission (2010) Teachers' Professional Development - Europe in international comparison - *An analysis of teachers' professional development based on the OECD's Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)* Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Union: Available from: http://ec.europa.eu/education/school-education/development_en.htm [accessed on: 15/7/12]

Evans, L. (2002) 'What constitutes teacher development?' *Oxford Review of Education*, 28(1) p.123–137

Evans, L. (2007) 'Professionalism Professionality and the Development of Education Professionals', *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 56(1) p.20–38

Evetts, J. (2009) 'The management of professionalism' in Gewirtz, S., Mahony, P., Hextall, I., and Cribb, A. *Changing Teacher Professionalism*. London: Routledge, p.19-30

Florian, L. & Black-Hawkins, K. (2011) Exploring inclusive pedagogy,
British Educational Research Journal, 37:5, p.813-828

Flyvberg, B., (2011) “Case Study” in Denzin, Y. and Lincoln, N. (2005) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research, Fourth Edition*, Thousand Oaks, Sage Chapter 17, p.301-316

Fraser C., Kennedy, A., Reid, L., & McKinney S. (2007) ‘Teachers’ continuing professional development: contested concepts, understandings and models’, *Journal of In-Service Education*, 33(2) p.153-169

Freire, P. (1996) *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. 3rd Edition, London: Penguin

Friedman, A. & M. Phillips (2001). *Leaping the CPD Hurdle: A study of the barriers and drivers to participation in Continuing Professional Development*. BERA Annual conference, University of Leeds, September 2001, Available from:
<http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/00001892.htm> [accessed on: 12/7/11]

Fullan, M. (2007) *Change the terms for teacher learning*. National Staff Development Council 800-727-7288 VOL. 28, NO. 3 Available from:
<http://www.michaelfullan.com/media/13396074650.pdf> [accessed on 10/8/12]

Fuller, S. (2007) *The Knowledge Book: Key Concepts in Philosophy, Science and Culture*, London: Acumen Publishing Ltd

- Gewirtz, S., Mahony, P., Hextall, I., & Cribb, A. (2009) *Changing Teacher Professionalism*, London: Routledge
- Gomm, R., Hammersley, M. & Foster, P. (2000) *Case Study Method*, London: Sage
- Goodall, J., Day, C., Lindsay, G., Muijs, D., & Harris, A., (2005) *Evaluating the Impact of Continuing Professional Development (CPD)*, Available from:
<https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/standard/publicationDetail/Page1/RR659>
 [accessed on: 20/08/12]
- Goodson, I. (2003) *Professional Knowledge, Professional Lives*, Buckingham: Open UP
- Goodson, I.F. & Hargreaves, A. (1996) *Teachers Professional Lives*, London: Falmer Press
- Grey et al., (2006) *The National Audit of Support, Services and Provision for Children with Low Incidence Needs* London HMSO, Available from:
<https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/standard/publicationDetail/Page1/RR729>
 [accessed on: 1/2/11]
- GTCE (General Teaching Council for England) (2006) *Teachers Professional Learning Framework*, Available from: http://www.gtce.org.uk/publications/commit_tpfl/
 [Accessed on: 1/08/09]
- GTCE (General Teaching Council for England) (2009) 'Code of conduct and practice for registered teachers', Available from:

http://www.gtce.org.uk/documents/publicationpdfs/code_of_conduct_1009.pdf

[Accessed on: 1/08/09]

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research, in N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (p.105-117). London: Sage

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Controversies, Contradictions, Confluences, in Denzin, Y. and Lincoln, N. (2005) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research, Third Edition*, and London: Sage

Guest, G., MacQueen, K., & Namey, E. (2012) *Applied Thematic Analysis* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Guskey, T. (2000) *Evaluating professional development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press

Habermas, J. (1987) *The Theory of Communicative Action. Translated by Thomas McCarthy*, Cambridge: Polity

Habermas, J. (1995) Questions and Counterquestions, in *Critical Theory a Reader* by Tallack D Hemel Hemsted: Harvester Wheatsheaf

Hammersley, M. (1992) *What's Wrong With Ethnography?* London: Routledge

Hammersley, M.; Foster, P. & Gomm, R. (2000). Case study and generalisation. In: Gomm, R.; Hammersley, M. & Foster, P. eds. *Case Study Method: Key Issues, Key Texts*. London: Sage, p.98–115

Hargreaves, A. (2000) 'Four ages of professionalism and professional learning', *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 6(2) p.151-82

Hargreaves, A. (2003) *Teaching in the Knowledge Society*. Maidenhead: Open University Press

Hargreaves, D H, (2012) 'A *self-improving school system in international context*,' Nottingham, National College for Leadership of Schools and Children's Services. Available at <http://www.education.gov.uk/nationalcollege/docinfo?id=175757&filename=a-self-improving-system-in-international-context.pdf> [Accessed on 1/5/12]

Hargreaves, D. (1998, reprint 2001) *Creative professionalism. The role of teachers in the knowledge society*, Available from: www.demos.co.uk [Accessed on 1/4/08]

Harland, J. & Kinder, K. (1997) 'Teachers' continuing professional development: framing a model of outcomes', *Professional Development in Education*, 23(1) p.71-84

Harris, A., Day, C., Goodall, J., Lindsay, G., & Muijs, D., (2006) 'What difference does it make? Evaluating the impact of continuing professional development in schools. *Scottish Educational Review*, 37 SPI, p.90-98

Heck, R (2005) 'Conceptualizing and Conducting Meaningful Research Studies in Education' in Lincoln, Y. & Denzin, N. (2005) (Eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research: 3rd Edition*. Thousand Oaks: Sage, p.373-392

Hegarty, S (2000) 'Teaching as a knowledge-based activity', *Oxford Review of Education*, 26(3) p.451-465

Heidegger, M. (1978) *Martin Heidegger: Basic Writings* Krell, D.F. (editor), and London: Routledge

Hobson, A.J., and A. Malderez, eds. (2005) *Becoming a teacher: Student teachers' motives and preconceptions, and early school-based experiences during initial teacher training (ITT)*. Nottingham: Department for Education and Skills

Hodkinson, P & Hodkinson, H. (2001) *The Strengths and Limitations of Case Study Research*. Paper presented to the Learning and Skills Development Agency conference Available from: education.exeter.ac.uk/tlc/docs/.../LE_PH_PUB_05.12.01.rtf [accessed on 20/2/11]

Holton, E.F., Knowles, M. S., & Swanson, R.A., (2012) *The Adult Learner*. (6th Ed), London: Elsevier

Hustler, D., McNamara, O., Jarvis, J., M. Londra, M., & Campbell, A. (2003). *Teachers' perceptions of Continuing Professional Development. Research Report No. 429*. Nottingham: DfES Available from: <http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/4754/1/16385164-58c6-4f97-b85b-2186b83ede8c.pdf> [accessed on: 1/7/10]

Keay, J.K. and Lloyd, C.M. (2011) *Linking Children's Learning with Professional Learning: Impact, Evidence and Inclusive Practice*, Rotterdam: Sense

Kelly, P. (2006) 'What is teacher learning? A socio-cultural perspective', *Oxford Review of Education*. 32(4) p.505-519

Kennedy, A. (2005) Models of Continuing Professional Development: a framework for analysis, *Journal of In-service Education*, 31(2) p.235-250

Kennedy, A. (2007) Continuing professional development (CPD) policy and the discourse of teacher professionalism in Scotland *Research Papers in Education*, 1470-1146, 22(1) p.95 - 111 Available from: <http://strathprints.strath.ac.uk/3294/> [accessed on:1/7/11]

Kennedy, A. (2011) Collaborative continuing professional development (CPD) for teachers in Scotland: aspirations, opportunities and barriers *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 34(1) p.25-41

Kvale, S. (2008) *InterViews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing* Second Edition Thousand oaks: Sage Publications, Inc;

Kvale, S., (1996) *InterViews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*, Thousand Oaks: Sage

Lapadat, J. C.(2000) 'Problematizing transcription: Purpose, paradigm and quality',
International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 3(3) p.203-219

Lather, P. (1992) Critical Frames in Educational Research: Feminist and Post-structural Perspectives. *Theory into Practice*, Volume XXXI, Number 2 p.88-99

Laursen, P.F. (1996) 'Professionalism and the Reflective Approach to Teaching' in
Kompf, M. et al. (eds.) *Changing Research and Practice: Teachers' Professionalism, Identities and Knowledge* London: Falmer p.48-55

Lewis, A.L. & Norwich, B. (2005) How specialised is teaching pupils with disabilities or difficulties? (*In Special Teaching for Special Children? Pedagogies for inclusion*,
Lewis, A.L. & Norwich, B (Editors), Open University Press). Milton Keynes.

Lin, E., Wang, J., Spalding, E., Klecka, C., & Odell, S (2011) 'Toward Strengthening the Preparation of Teacher Educator-Researchers in Doctoral Programs and Beyond'
Journal of Teacher Education 62 p.239

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications

Lloyd, C. (2008) 'Removing barriers to achievement: A strategy for inclusion or exclusion?' *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 12(2) p.221-236

Luck, L. Jackson, D. and Usher, K. (2006) 'Case Study: a bridge across the paradigms,'
Nursing Inquiry, 13(2) p.103-109

Lydon, S. and King, C. (2009) 'Can a single, short continuing professional development workshop cause change in the classroom?' *Professional Development in Education*, 35(1) p.63-82

Male, D. B. and Rayner, M. (2009) Who goes to SLD schools in England? A follow-up study. *Educational & Child Psychology*, 26, 4, p.19–30

Matheson, C. (2000) Education and professionalism found in Matheson C and Matheson D., *Education Issues in the Learning Age* London: Continuum

McCormick R. (2010): The state of the nation in CPD: a literature review, *Curriculum Journal*, 21(4) p.395-412

McIntyre, J. (1998) Arguing for an interpretive method. Published as Chap 14 in Higgs, J. *Writing Qualitative Research*. Centre for Professional Education Advancement Research and Development Series, Sydney: Hampden Press, p.161-174

Miles, M. B. & Huberman, A. M. (1994) *Qualitative data analysis* (2nd ed.). London: Sage

Mockler, N. (2005) 'Trans/forming Teachers: new professional learning and transformative teacher professionalism,' *Journal of In-service Education*, 31(4) p.733-746

- Mockler, N. (2007) 'Ethics in Practitioner Research' in Campbell A and Groundwater-Smith, S. *An Ethical Approach to Practitioner Research: Dealing with Issues and Dilemmas in Action Research*. London: Routledge, p.88-95
- Mockler, N (2013) "Teacher Professional Learning in a Neoliberal Age: Audit, Professionalism and Identity," *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*: Vol. 38: Iss. 10, Article 3. Available at: <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol38/iss10/3>
- Muijs, D., & Harris, A., (2006) 'Teacher led school improvement: Teacher leadership in the UK,' *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22 p.961–972
- Nodding, N. (2007) *Philosophy of Education*, Boulder: Westview Press.
- Norwich, B., & Lewis, A., (2007) 'How specialized is teaching children with disabilities and difficulties?' *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 39(2) p.127-150
- O'Gorman, E., & Drudy, S., (2011) Professional Development for Teachers Working in Special Education/Inclusion in Mainstream Schools: The Views of Teachers and Other Stakeholders: Dublin University College available from:
http://www.ncse.ie/uploads/1/Professional_Development_of_Teachers.pdf [Accessed on 1/5/12]
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) (2009) *Creating effective teaching and learning environments*: First results from TALIS. Paris: Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development Available from: <http://>

www.oecd.org/document/54/0,3343,en_2649_39263231_42980662_1_1_1_1,00.html

[accessed on: 1/7/12]

Ofsted (2002) Continuing Professional Development for Teachers in Schools OFSTED Publications Centre available from <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/resources/continuing-professional-development-of-teachers> [accessed on 1/3/11]

Ofsted (2004) *Towards inclusive schools: Schooling Special educational Needs and disability*, London: HMSO

Ofsted (2006) *The logical chain: continuing professional development in effective schools*: HMSO available from:
http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/assets/Internet_Content/Publications_Team/File_attachments/logical_chain_2639.doc [Accessed on 17/10/07]

Ofsted (2010a) The special educational needs and disability review A statement is not enough London: HMSO, Available from: <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/resources/special-educational-needs-and-disability-review> [accessed on: 20/4/11]

Ofsted (2010b) Good Professional Development in Schools, London: HMSO, Available from:
<http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/resources/good-professional-development-schools> Accessed on [11/9/2011]

Opfer, D. and Pedder, D. (2010) Access to Continuous Professional Development by teachers in England, *Curriculum Journal*, 21:4, p.453-471

Opfer, D. and Pedder, D. (2011a) Conceptualizing Teacher Professional Learning, *Review of Education Research*, 81 p.376

Opfer, D. and Pedder, D. (2011b) 'The lost promise of teacher professional development in England', *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 34(1) p.3 -24

David Pedder & V. Darleen Opfer (2013) Professional learning orientations: patterns of dissonance and alignment between teachers' values and practices, *Research Papers in Education*, 28:5, p.539-570

Patrick, F. and Forde, C. and McPhee, A. (2003) Challenging the 'New Professionalism': from managerialism to pedagogy? *Journal of In-Service Education* 29(2) p.237-254

Payne, G. (2007) Issues after 40 Years Social Divisions, Social Mobilities and Social Research: *Methodological Sociology*, 41, p.901

Pedder, D & Opfer, V. D. (2010) 'Planning and organisation of teachers' Continuous Professional Development in schools in England', *Curriculum Journal*, 21(4) p.433 – 452

Pedder D., & Opfer, V. D. (2011) 'Are we realising the full potential of teachers' professional learning in schools in England? Policy issues and recommendations from a national study,' *Professional Development in Education*, 37(5) p.741-758

Pedder, D , Opfer, V. D , McCormick, R & Storey, A (2010) 'Schools and Continuing Professional Development in England – State of the Nation' research study: policy context, aims and design,' *Curriculum Journal*, 21(4) p.365 – 394

Pedder, D. & Opfer, V. D. (2010): Planning and organisation of teachers' Continuous Professional Development in schools in England, *Curriculum Journal*, 21(4) p.433-452

Pedder D & Opfer, D. V. (2013) Professional learning orientations: patterns of dissonance and alignment between teachers' values and practices, *Research Papers in Education*, 28:5, p.539-570

Pedder, D., James, M. & MacBeath, J. (2005) 'How teachers value and practice professional learning' *Research Papers in education*. 2003, p.209-243

Pedder, D., Storey, A., & Opfer, D. (2008) Synthesis report Schools and continuing professional development (CPD) in England – State of the Nation research project (T34718) A report commissioned by the Training Development Agency for Schools

Phillips, C. (1978) Constructivism and Epistemology *Philosophy*, 53(203) p.51-69
London: Cambridge University Press

Pollard, A (2005): *Reflective Teaching: Evidence-Informed Professional Practice*. 2nd Ed. London: Continuum

- Pollard, A. (ed) (2010) *Professionalism and Pedagogy: A contemporary opportunity*. A Commentary by TLRP and GTCE. London: TLR
- Pring, R. (2004) *Philosophy of Education Research*, 2nd ed., London and New York: Continuum
- Punch, K (2000) *Developing Effective Research Proposals*, London: Sage
- Quicke, J. (1998) 'Towards a New Professionalism for 'New Times', some problems and possibilities' *Teacher Development*. 2(3) p.323-338
- Rikowski, G. (2006) *The Culture of Professionalisation*, Lecture 4, Education, Culture & Society module, Education Studies, School of Education, University of Northampton, 30th October Available from:
<http://www.flowideas.co.uk/?page=articles&sub=Caught%20in%20the%20Storm%20of%20Capital> [accessed on: 12/09/10]
- Robson, C. (2003) *Real World Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner-Researchers*. 2nd ed., Oxford: Blackwell
- Sachs, J. (2003) *The Activist Teaching Profession*. Buckingham: Open University Press
- Saunders, L. (2007) 'Professional values and research values: from dilemmas to diversity' in Cambell A and Groundwater-Smith, S. *An Ethical Approach to Practitioner Research: Dealing with Issues and Dilemmas in Action Research*; London: Routledge, p.62-74

Schön, D.A. (1983 edn., 1991 reprint) *The Reflective Practitioner. How Professionals Think in Action*. Arena Ashgate

Schön, D.A. (1983) 'The Crises of Confidence in Professional Knowledge' in *The Reflective Practitioner* Arena Ashgate Ch.1, p.3-20

Schön, D. A. (1987), "*Educating the Reflective Practitioner*", to the 1987 meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Available from:
<http://educ.queensu.ca/~russellt/howteach/reflect.htm> [Accessed on 1/10/07]

Schwandt, T. (1994), 'Constructivist, Interpretivist Approaches to Human Inquiry' in *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (eds) Norman Denzin and Yvonne Lincoln, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications

Schwandt, T. A. (2005) Constructivist, Interpretivist Approaches to Human Inquiry in O'brian, J, *The Production of Reality: Essays and Readings on Social Interaction*, Seattle: Pine Forge Press

Stake, R. (2005) Chapter 17, Qualitative Case Studies in Denzin, Y. and Lincoln, N. *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research, Third Edition*, London: Sage

Stake, R. (2010) *Qualitative Research: Studying how things work*, London: Guilford Press

Steiner, G. (1978) *Heidegger*, London: Fontana

Stenhouse, L. (1985) in J. Ruddock & D. Hopkins (Eds.) *Research as a Basis for Teaching: readings from the work of Lawrence Stenhouse* Oxford: Heinemann

STRB (School Teachers' Review Body) (2005) *Evidence from the Rewards and Incentives Group 25th May 2005*. Dfes. Available from: www.tda.gov.uk/standards [Accessed on 05/08/2009]

Swann, J. (2003) How Science can contribute to the improvement of educational practice, Oxford *Review of Education*, 29(2), Carfax Publishing

TDA (The Training and Development Agency for Schools) (2007a) *Professional Standards for Teachers in England*, London TDA: Available from: www.tda.gov.uk/standards [Accessed on: 01/02/2008]

TDA (The Training and Development Agency for Schools) (2007b) Impact evaluation of CPD, Available from: http://www.tda.gov.uk/upload/resources/pdf/i/impact_evaluation.pdf [Accessed on: 18/9/09]

TDA (The Training and Development Agency for Schools) (2007c) *What does good CPD look like*, London TDA: Available from: www.tda.gov.uk [Accessed on: 12/02/2008]

TDA (The Training and Development Agency for Schools) (2009) *The Impact Evaluation Model*. Available from:

http://www.tda.gov.uk/upload/resources/pdf/i/ie_guidancetemplate.pdf [Accessed on: 1/9/09]

TEACCH (2003) Treatment and Education of Autistic and Related Communication Handicapped Children, Available from: www.teacch.com, [accessed on 1/7/12]

Terzi, L. (2005) 'Beyond the Dilemma of Difference: The Capability Approach to Disability and Special Educational Needs,' *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 39 p.443–459

Thomas, D. (2003) *A general inductive approach for qualitative data analysis* School of Population Health University of Auckland, New Zealand Available from: http://www.fmhs.auckland.ac.nz/soph/centres/hrmas/_docs/Inductive2003.pdf [accessed on: 21/03/11]

Timperley, H., & Alton-Lee, A. (2008) 'Reframing teacher professional learning: An alternative policy approach to strengthening valued outcomes for diverse learners,' *Review of Research in Education*, 32, p.328–369

Timperley, H., Wilson, A., Barrar, H., & Fung, I. (2007) Teacher professional Learning and Development, Best Evidence Synthesis Iteration, New Zealand Ministry of Education, Available from: <http://www.oecd.org/education/preschoolandschool/48727127.pdf> [accessed on: 12/01/11]

Turner-Bisset, R. (1999) 'The Knowledge Bases of the Expert Teacher' *British Educational Research Journal*, 25 p.39-55

Wenger, E. (1999) *Communities of Practice. Learning, meaning and identity*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Whitty, G. (2006) *Paper presented at the first General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland Annual Lecture, Belfast, March 2006* Institute of Education, University of London, Available from:
<http://www.gtcni.org.uk/publications/uploads/document/Annual%20Lecture%20Paper.pdf> [accessed on 29/1/11]

Williams, M. (2000) Interpretivism and Generalisation, *Sociology*, 34(2) p.209–224

Yin, R.K. (1984) *Case Study Research*, London: Sage

Yin R.K. (1994) *Case study research: design and methods*, 2nd ed. London: Sage

Yin, R.K. (2012) *Applications of Case Study Research*, 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage

Young, M. F. D. & Beck, J., (2005) 'The assault on the professions and the restructuring of academic and professional identities: a Bernsteinian analysis,' *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 26 (2) p.183-197

Appendix 1: The timetable for different phases of the research project

Dates	School data	Teacher data	Project development
February 2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pilot questions and trial interviews • Finalise interview themes for the interviews with school leadership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pilot semi structured interviews • Finalise interview themes for the first interviews 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue literature review • Two schools agree to participate • School agreements secured
February to March 2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initial school data gathered 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher volunteers selected • Teachers briefed on the project
May – June 2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarify any issues around the school information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First round of teacher interviews 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct first interviews • Transcription of first interviews • Initial analysis • Development of second interview questions in response to the first interviews
June 2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview with CPD leader 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct second interviews with teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct second interviews • Transcription of second interviews • Continued analysis of interviews
July 2010 – Sept 2012			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing up the dissertation and final drafting • Feedback to teachers and schools regarding the findings and conclusions

Appendix 2: Models used as discussion points in interview 2

Models of Continuing Professional Development: a framework for analysis,

Adapted from Kennedy (2005)

Model of CPD	Purpose of model
1. The training model CPD provides teachers with then opportunity to update their skills in order to be able to demonstrate their competence. It is generally 'delivered' to the teacher by an 'expert'.	Transmission
2. The award bearing model This relies on, or emphasises, the completion of award-bearing programmes of study	
3. The deficit model This model is designed to address perceived weaknesses in teaching and uses profession learning to address the deficits	
4. The cascade model In this model teachers attend training and cascade it to other colleagues	
5. The standards based model This model focuses on using the professional standards in performance management to focus professional development	Transitional
6. The coaching / mentoring model The model emphasises the importance of the one-to-one relationship, generally between two teachers, which is designed to support CPD. (confidentiality)	
7. The community of practice model All staff are members of various communities of practice, learning within a community of practice happens as a result of that community and its interactions, and not merely as a result of planned learning episodes such as courses.	
8. The action research model This model uses research based professional learning as a means of supporting professional learning	Transformative
9. The transformative model The combination of practices and conditions that support a transformative agenda. In this sense, it could be argued that the transformative model is not a clearly definable model in itself; rather it recognises the range of different conditions required for transformative practice.	

Matrix used as a discussion point in interview 2

Matrix to map the planning and ownership of professional learning by teachers.		
The four quadrants represent:		
Group	Type of professional learner	Characteristics
1	Organised professional learner	Teachers that plan but don't feel they have ownership of their professional learning
2	Engaged professional learner	Teachers that plan and feel that they have ownership of their professional learning
3	Disempowered professional learner	Teachers that don't plan and don't feel that they have ownership of their professional learning
4	Neutral professional learner	Teachers that don't plan but feel that they have ownership of their professional learning

Appendix 3: Table to illustrate the sources of evidence and data to be accessed through the research process

<p>1. <i>To what extent do teachers plan their professional learning?</i></p> <p>2. <i>Do teachers take ownership of their professional learning?</i></p> <p>3. <i>How do the CPD processes and the provision in a school support the individual professional learning of the teacher?</i></p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audio recordings and transcripts of two semi structured interviews with each teacher. • Audio recordings and transcripts of two semi structured interviews with the CPD leader at each school. • School documentation including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Ofsted reports, ○ school policies such as performance management and CPD policy and ○ The school website ○ Evidence from CPD programmes • Professional literature relating to professional learning and issues of professionalism, particularly around professional knowledge and ownership and responsibility.
<p>4. <i>Is there any evidence that a more transformative focus of CPD provision in a school is more supportive of the professional learning of the individual teacher?</i></p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>In the second semi structured interview the model of CPD in schools developed by Kennedy was used as a means of focusing on this question. I asked both the CPD leader and the teachers to reflect on the different models of CPD and the degree to which CPD is transmissive or transformative.</i>

Appendix 4: Lexicon used in a-priori coding

- Action research
- Ambition
- Barrier
- Career
- Coaching
- Community
- CPD
- Deficit
- Family
- Individual
- Job
- Leadership
- Learning
- Mentoring
- Ownership
- Performance management
- Planning
- Personal
- Practice
- Profession
- Professional development
- Professional knowledge
- Professionalism
- School
- Special school
- SEN
- Special Educational Needs
- Standards
- Teacher
- Training
- Transformative

Appendix 5: Summary of teacher backgrounds

This is a summary table of teacher data

Teacher	Age	No. years as a teacher	No. years in education	No. years since QTS	Number of schools taught in	No. years at current school	Current role
1	51	27	28	27	5	5	PE teacher
2	44	6	7	4	5	1	Year 4 class teacher
3	27	4	6	4	3	3	Early Years teacher
4	37	14	14	14	4	4	Outreach Coordinator
5	58	5	30	5	1	5	Manager of Autistic Resource Base
6	33	7	7	2	2	2	Advisory Teacher
7	55	31	31	31	1	31	Art teacher
8	49	12	20	12	4	2	Maths Coordinator

Pen Portraits of Each Teacher

Teacher 1

Teacher 1 was a 51 year old male teacher, teaching at school A. He had 28 years of experience in education and had taught in five schools. He started his career as a music teacher and had varied experience including working overseas. He had worked at school A for five years and was the PE coordinator but not a trained PE teacher. He described feeling comfortable in his current role so he was not making any active professional learning choices. His learning was related to his teaching role but that learning was not specifically school related, for example he was currently learning about teaching golf, cricket and swimming by experiencing the sports. Teacher 1 described how he was not planning any professional learning at the point of the interview, and was not sure what he wanted to do next, but if something relevant came up he would ask to participate in it.

Teacher 2

Teacher 2 is a 44 year old female teacher, teaching at school A. She had seven years of experience in education and had taught in five schools. Teacher 2 came to teaching

late, starting as a teaching assistant. She undertook her teacher training through the Graduate Teacher Programme in the English department of a high achieving school. She then moved to a challenging school as a Newly Qualified Teacher. She describes having a 'middle-aged' crises and got interested in special needs because of a brother with Downs Syndrome. She moved to her current school (school A) where she was teaching year four pupils. She felt that each stage in her career had been a 'complete learning curve' but hoped for a settled period in her professional development. She describes her current school as great in terms of CPD with lots of support and training, with what seems to be plenty of money. She felt that she has ownership of her CPD at her current school, she has identified what she wants to learn about and has been able to pursue that.

Teacher 3

Teacher 3 was a 27 year old female teacher with three years of experience teaching in school A. She initially did a psychology degree, and had some experience working with children with SEN. It was her intention to become a special needs teacher. She trained as a teacher through the Graduate Teacher Programme which she found challenging. She then moved to her current school. At the time of the interview she was the Early Years teacher and sensory coordinator. She was also the research coordinator collaborating with a network of other special needs teachers from a range of ASD and SLD schools. She had completed a post graduate certificate and diploma and was in the third year of her MA. She had also undertaken a range of training relating to teaching pupils with autism. She felt that she has a strong sense of ownership of her professional learning and was always looking for new ways of learning. She described herself as a proactive learner.

Teacher 4

Teacher 4 is a 37 year old female teacher with 14 years of experience. She did a Post Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) to gain her Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). She had varied teaching experiences working as a Science teacher in the UK and abroad. She taught in a number of schools, eventually becoming Head of Science. She decided that she needed a change of career and took a career break to become an Educational Psychologist. She began to work as a volunteer at school A and realised that she wanted to become a special needs teacher rather than an Educational Psychologist, preferring the classroom to a role that involved a cycle of meetings and paperwork. She started work as a teacher in the classroom and then two years later became one of the schools outreach coordinators.

Teacher 5

Teacher 5 was a 58 year old male teacher with thirty years working in education, but only five years as a qualified teacher. His first career was as a musician. He began working with children in the late 1970s. In the 1980s he started working with children with SEN and children with autism working for the National Autistic Society as an employment support worker. He completed an Open University degree during this time. He decided that he wanted to become a teacher so he completed a PGCE and began working at school B in the Autistic Resource Base. He was participating in a middle manager course at the time of the interview. Looking back over his career he

could see progression but it was without planning. He often updated his skills and knowledge through reading and observing the students.

Teacher 6

Teacher 6 was a 33 year old female teacher with 7 years of teaching experience. She was Australian and had moved to the UK in 2000. She completed a post graduate diploma in teaching in Australia. In her first teaching post in the UK all her CPD was related to gaining her QTS. During this time she was also the SENCO in the school in which she worked. At the time of the interview she was part of the advisory service that was based at school B. She supports and joins in INSET in school B. She describes actively seeking courses that will support her practical knowledge of working with pupils with SEN.

Teacher 7

Teacher 7 was a 55 year old female teacher with 31 years of teaching experience working as a part time art teacher in the same school, school B. She initially trained as a primary teacher and then decided that she did not want to teach. However she moved down to the SE of England and took a post in her current school. She has taught in that school for all her career, initially full time but after having children in a part time capacity, as the art teacher. She described her CPD as specifically focusing on the subject she taught, looking for opportunities to develop her subject knowledge.

Teacher 8

Teacher 8 was a 49 year old female teacher with 20 years of experience working in education and twelve years as a qualified teacher. Teaching was her second career; she started her working life in accountancy. After having children she decided that she wanted to teach. She completed a degree in Linguistics, Maths and Science and then a PGCE. She was the Maths Coordinator at case study B and was studying for her second MA. She mentioned that finance was an issue on the courses she wanted to do and she was paying for her own study. She did not appear to have a positive relationship with the senior management in the school in which she worked.

Appendix 6: Examples of tree node structures taken from Nvivo 9

Tree node structure in August 2011

Name		Number of references
1. Planning of professional learning		2
	Career influences	3
	Lack of planning	2
	Motivation	4
	Negative influence of school & LA	2
	Observable retrospective planning of CPD not forward planning	1
	Strong sense of planning	3
	Unfocused planning	1
2. Ownership of learning		4
	Changing ownership	2
	Degrees of ownership	2
	Separation of personal from school based learning	3
	Strong sense of ownership	4
	Uncertainty about ownership	3
3. School CPD support for individual professional learning		1
	Constraints of school CPD	1
	Link of pm to CPD - all teachers	6
	Mismatch between CPD and embedded practice	2
	Prescriptive nature of school CPD	2
	School CPD doesn't support professional learning	2
	School CPD support school improvement	1
	Significance of good line management	1
4. Transformative CPD		0
	Attitudes and learning	1
5. Models of CPD		0
	1. The training model	4
	2. The award bearing model	3
	3. The deficit model	3
	4. The cascade model	2
	5. The standards based model	5
	6. The coaching & mentoring model	4
	7. The community of practice model	4

	8. The action research model	2
	9. The transformative model	2
	Model in school B	3
	Multiple CPD models at work in school A	2
	Non Kennedy CPD strategies	4
	Transmission model of CPD	2
Barriers to professional learning		12
CPD culture		1
Not looking for professional learning		1
Possible leading question - interviewer		1
Process of professional learning		4
Reason for professional learning		4
Reflection on practice as part of CPD		4
Semantics		4
Special schools		1

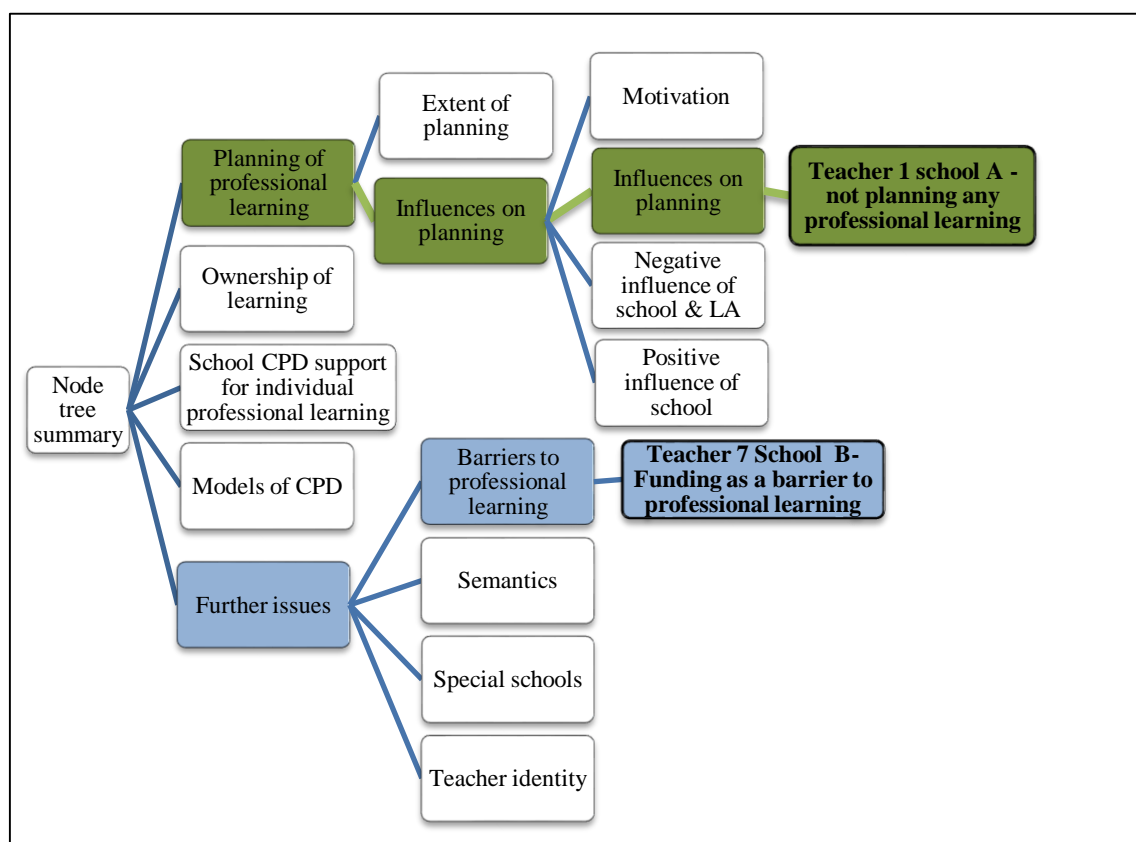
Tree node structure in January 2012

Name			Number of references
1. Planning of professional learning			77
	Extent of planning		41
		No sense of planning	8
		Not looking for professional learning	7
		Retrospective awareness of planning	2
		Some sense of planning	1
		Strong sense of planning	7
		Weak sense of planning	16
	Influences on planning		36
		Influence of career stage	14
		Motivation	15
		Negative influence of school & LA	6
		Positive influence of school	1
2. Ownership of learning			42
	Extent of ownership		30
		Changing extent of ownership	5
		No sense of ownership	4
		Some sense of ownership	5
		Strong sense of ownership	10
		Uncertainty about ownership	6
	Influences on ownership		12
		Impact of school on ownership	9
		Perspectives on ownership	3

3.	School CPD support for individual professional learning		50
	Balancing priorities		1
	Constraints of school CPD		5
	CPD culture		13
		CPD culture in school	4
		Culture of learning - from other colleagues	2
	CPD linked to PM		
	CPD linked to school improvement		5
	School CPD unsupportive of professional learning		4
	Significance of good line management		5
4.	Models of CPD		141
	1. The training model		35
		Benefit of training model in early career development	1
		Benefits of structured programmes	1
		Negative view of training	1
		Positive view of training	11
		Recognise strong use of training model	12
	2. The award bearing model		10
	3. The deficit model		9
	4. The cascade model		6
	5. The standards based model		11
	6. The coaching & mentoring model		14
	7. The community of practice model		15
	8. The action research model		3
	9. The transformative model		4
	Non Kennedy CPD strategies		22
	Reflection on practice as part of CPD		4
	Transmission or transformative models of CPD		7
5.	Further issues		65
	Barriers to professional learning		22
		Danger of cynicism	1
		Time as a barrier	2
	Semantics		7
	Special schools		20
		Difference between mainstream and special schools	17
		Motivation for working with SEN students	2
	Teacher identity		16

Flow chart illustrating the final location of the text with the node tree

Hierarchy taken from Nvivo 9 in January 2012



Appendix 7: Sample Consent Form



RU/EB13/1

ETHICS BOARD PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM (Teacher)

Title of Research Project: Accident or design: To what extent do teachers plan and own their professional learning?

Brief Description of Research Project:

You are invited to participate in a research study examining the extent to which teachers working in special schools have ownership of their professional learning. It will also explore the extent to which they are able to plan the progression of their professional learning within the context of the continuing professional development processes and activities that take place within their school.

The study will be working in two schools with up to 4 teachers and also a member of the leadership team in each school to create case studies through which the core issues can be examined.

Your participation in this study requires two interviews of approximately 45 minutes long and will be conducted at your school in a location where we will not be interrupted. With your permission the interviews will be recorded and transcribed in order to capture and maintain an accurate record of the discussion. The questions will relate to your professional learning experiences in the context of your school continuing professional development.

Data storage to Protect Confidentiality

You will not be identified by name in the course of this research study or in any subsequent publication. Every effort will be made to ensure that all information provided will be treated as strictly confidential. All data will be coded to ensure anonymity. It will be stored securely and will be used for professional purposes only. The research study will be submitted to fulfil the assessment requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education and the results published as a dissertation.

Withdrawal from the study

Your participation in the study is voluntary. If at any point during the research or interviews you wish to withdraw you are, of course, free to do so.

Investigator	Name: Mr Paul Walsh
Contact	School Address: The Park School, Onslow Crescent, Woking, Surrey, GU227AT
Details:	University address: School of Education, Room E110, Cedar Building, Froebel College, Roehampton University, Roehampton Lane, London, SW15 5PJ

Email: paulwalsh@thepark.surrey.sch.uk Telephone: 01483772057 Mob:07530240801
--

Consent Statement:

I agree to take part in this research, and am aware that I am free to withdraw at any point. I understand that the information I provide will be treated in confidence by the investigator and that my identity will be protected in the publication of any findings.

Name

Signature

Date

Please note: if you have a concern about any aspect of your participation or any other queries please raise this with the investigator. However if you would like to contact an independent party please contact the Dean of School (or if the researcher is a student you can also contact the Director of Studies.)

Dean of School Contact Details:	Director of Studies Contact Details: